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ABSTRACT

This book provides educators and administrators with the knowledge and skills needed to engage in peer assistance and review within the context of teacher evaluation, describing how to develop and implement an effective teacher peer assistance and review program. The book offers the following: components of successful peer assistance and review programs; 10 essential questions to ask before beginning; criteria, standards, and data; key players and their roles, relationships, and responsibilities; reporting and using the results; and best practices from accomplished programs. A collection of resources includes: relevant Web sites; sample rubrics; sample job description and application form for consulting teachers; sample request for assistance and recommendation for intervention; sample standards from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards; and a sample educational policy trust agreement. (Contains 34 references.) (SM)

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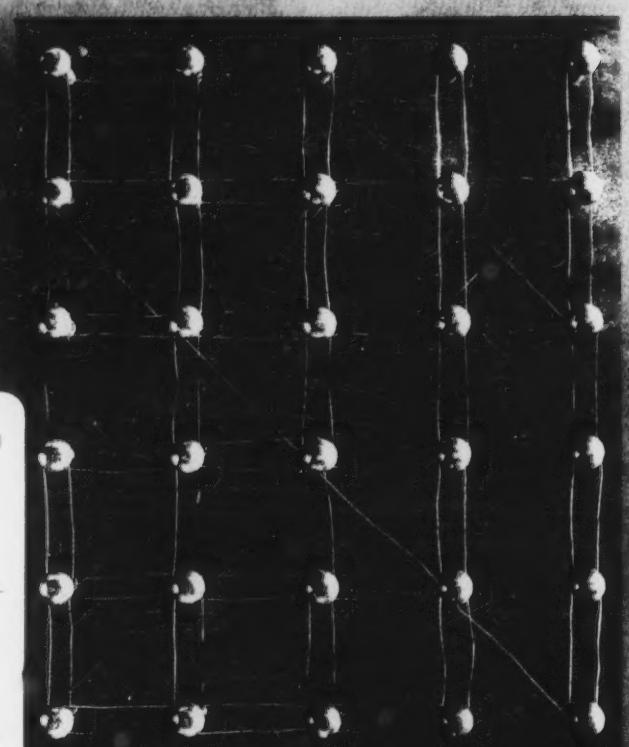
Teacher Peer Assistance and Review

A Practical Guide for Teachers and Administrators



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A Practical Guide for Teachers and Administrators

Lorin W. Anderson ▪ Leonard O. Pellicer

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Preface

This is a book about teachers helping other teachers while at the same time having the courage to make difficult decisions about their teaching colleagues when it becomes necessary. This is the essence of peer assistance (helping) and review (decision making).

Purpose of the Book

The purpose of the book is to provide educators with the knowledge and skills needed to engage in peer assistance and review (PAR) within the context of teacher evaluation. After reading the book, readers should be able to answer questions such as the following:

- What is the proper role of peer review in teacher improvement and evaluation?
- What qualifications, knowledge, and skills should peer reviewers possess, and what training do they need?
- What procedures should be followed when engaging in peer review?
- What evidence do peer reviewers need to collect and how should it be reported?
- What role does human judgment play in peer review?
- What is the proper relationship between peer reviewers and school administrators?

Need for the Book

Although peer review has long been the cornerstone of faculty evaluation in higher education, only recently has peer review in elementary and secondary education been advocated. A search of the ERIC database (1990 to 2000) using two key phrases—*peer review* and *teacher evaluation*—resulted in 65 "hits." Almost 70% of these—45—pertained to higher education. Furthermore, only about half of the 20 or so relating to elementary and secondary education even addressed issues of teacher evaluation. The other half discussed the importance of peer review in teacher preparation programs and staff development efforts.

Because of the relative recency of peer assistance and review in elementary and secondary education, we believe this book is timely. There are two reasons for this belief. First, concerns for teacher professionalism have led to endorsements of peer assistance and review by professional associations, such as the NEA and AFT. Second, legislation recently passed in California has placed peer assistance and review in the center of teacher evaluation and improvement efforts. As a consequence, the time is right for careful consideration of peer assistance and review, although the knowledge base pertaining to peer review is quite small.

Peer assistance and review programs have a great deal of potential. If done well, they can strengthen teacher professionalism, improve teacher quality, and ultimately, enhance student learning. But doing them well is no simple matter. Numerous mistakes can be made along the way, each having the potential of undermining the effectiveness of the program. An attempt may be made to serve too many teachers of too many types with too few resources. The criteria that define good teaching and form the basis of the program may be vague, confusing, or unrelated to improved instructional quality. Consulting teachers, the heart of the program, may be poorly selected, poorly trained, or both. The culture within which the programs are expected to operate may be such that the relationships among participating teachers, consulting teachers, and building administrators are strained. The purpose of this book is to help those interested in developing and operating peer assistance and review programs avoid these (and other) pitfalls.

Intended Audience

There are three primary audiences for this book: (a) teachers who are being reviewed and given assistance (referred to as "participating teachers"); (b) teachers who are conducting the review and providing assistance (referred to as "consulting teachers"); and (c) school administrators who must understand the results of the PAR process. In most cases, these audiences will be addressed through inservice training programs and workshops. Because of state legislation or changes in school district policies (or both), there is likely to be an increasing need for such programs and workshops. The book is intended to support them.

Unique Features of the Book

The book is grounded in reality and practicality. In writing this book, we came face to face with the conflict between ideal and practical—the difference between what *should* be done and what *can* be done. As academics, we live and work in the world of "shoulds" and "possibles." Practitioners, on the other hand, live and work in the world of "cans" and "likelys." Over our collective 60 years in the business of education, we have come to accept that many of the things that are possible are not very likely to occur. Recognizing this bias, we made a decision early on to ground our efforts in currently operating PAR programs. In this regard, we relied heavily on material we received from school districts with long-standing programs, such as those operating in New York City, the Poway Unified School District in California, and Toledo, Ohio. The intended result is for the reader to be able to make some informed judgments about peer assistance and review based on the experiences of others who have been involved in functioning programs that have stood the test of time.

We also believe that the attention that is given to criteria, standards, and data as they apply to the evaluation of teachers is a notable strength of this particular volume. As we reviewed functioning programs around the country, we found that issues related to these

areas were universally troublesome for school districts in their efforts to implement effective PAR programs. PAR programs can never be better than the criteria, standards, and data that drive such systems. We believe that this book will prove very helpful in dealing with issues related to criteria, standards, and data and will thereby increase the odds for success for those who wish to implement new PAR programs or modify existing ones.

Scope and Treatment

The book contains six chapters. We begin in Chapter 1 with a discussion of the nature of peer assistance and review, where it came from, and why it is important. In Chapter 2, we pose 10 questions that those considering PAR programs should answer. In Chapters 3 through 5, we explore alternative ways of answering these questions. Chapter 3 addresses issues pertaining to criteria, standards, and data. Chapter 4 focuses on the PAR process and defines the roles of those involved in it. Chapter 5 is concerned with reporting and using the PAR results. In all of these chapters, we rely heavily on examples taken from PAR programs that are currently operating. Last, in Chapter 6, we either give our answers to the 10 questions we raised in Chapter 2 or suggest ways in which those developing PAR programs can find the answers for themselves.

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We truly hope this book serves its purpose and serves it well. We believe that life in general improves when people decide to take control of their own lives. So it is with teachers.

About the Authors

Lorin W. Anderson is a Carolina Distinguished Professor of Education at the University of South Carolina, where he has served on the faculty for 27 years. After receiving his BA from Macalester College, St. Paul, Minnesota, in 1967, he taught high school and middle school mathematics in Minnesota for 4 years. He received his PhD in Measurement, Evaluation, and Statistical Analysis from the University of Chicago in 1973, where he studied with Benjamin S. Bloom. His research interests lie in the areas of classroom instruction and school learning, effective programs and practices for economically disadvantaged children and youth, the allocation and use of time, and classroom assessment (particularly in the affective domain). His most recent books include *Assessing Affective Characteristics in the Schools, Second Edition* (with Sid Bourke) and *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching, & Assessing: A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (with David Krathwohl and others), both published in 2000. He is a member of the International Academy of Education and serves as Chairman of the Editorial Board of the *International Journal of Educational Research*. He is married and has two adult sons, Christopher and Nicholas.

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1

What Is Teacher Peer Assistance and Review?

On the whole, the school reform movement has ignored the obvious: What teachers know and can do makes the crucial difference in what children learn.

—National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996, p. 5).

Can this be true? Is it possible that in our haste to reform American education over the past two decades, have we really ignored the singular importance of providing a competent and committed teacher in every classroom? Although no one can say for sure, one thing is fairly certain: Since the release of *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative of Educational Reform* by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), policy makers at all levels of government have turned over a great many stones in a surprisingly futile search for the keys to providing high-quality schooling for all of America's children.

A major wave of school reform followed closely on the heels of *A Nation at Risk* and created a mountain of state mandates and regulations designed to raise standards in a number of critical areas. These areas included, but were not limited to, attendance and academic requirements for students; professional licensure requirements

and performance outcomes for teachers; and student contact hours, curricula, and accountability measures for schools. The results that were achieved from these massive efforts were disappointing for the most part. Although the reforms did produce more and longer school days, more demanding attendance requirements, more tests and higher standards to measure student success, and more stringent requirements for one to enter and remain in the teaching profession, the major outcomes were more work, stress, and frustration for students, teachers, and administrators. There were only modest gains in terms of student achievement.

The assumption underlying the first reform wave of the 1980s was that the chief problems with American education resided in watered-down curricula; low academic requirements for students; and lax accountability standards for students, teachers, administrators, and schools. Although that assumption was essentially flawed, it served to teach policy makers a valuable lesson. Simply doing more of the same thing, even if it were done a little better, would not produce the results that they were hoping to achieve.

The latter part of the decade of the 1980s bore witness to the birth of a second wave of educational reform that was aimed at restructuring schools. The purpose behind restructuring schools was to conduct the business of education in a different way by redesigning roles, responsibilities, and relationships to get the job done better. The intent was to remove barriers that prevented people from working together in the most productive and efficient ways possible. In the words of Ann Lieberman (1988) of Teachers College, the call for restructuring schools raised "fundamental changes in the way teachers are prepared, inducted into teaching, and involved in leadership and decision making at the school level" (p. 4). As such, restructuring represented an important evolution in our thinking about how schools should function. The fundamental assumption underlying restructuring efforts was that the chief problems with American schools resided in the archaic structures of those schools and in the counterproductive roles teachers and principals play in those schools more so than it did in the curricula, academic standards, or accountability measures that happened to be in place. This is a critical insight because the structures of schools and the roles that people play within those structures create the range of possibilities that can exist in terms of curricula, academic standards, and

even accountability measures. When a given structure and the roles within that structure are rigid, the range of possibilities in terms of curricula, academic standards, and accountability measures are likely to be correspondingly narrow.

For well over 100 years, American schools have operated on a 19th-century industrial model that casts principals in the role of management and teachers in the role of labor. Perhaps more than anything else, this outmoded and dysfunctional model has contributed to fractured school communities where there are few shared values and no clear consensus on the most appropriate educational outcomes for students and schools and consequently, the best means to achieve those outcomes. Relatively few school communities have a consensual vision of what they should be or can be. This lack of a shared vision has severely limited the effectiveness of schools and created adversarial relationships where teachers and administrators have pulled as hard as they can in opposite directions, more intent on preserving the balance of power than in achieving a common dream.

> The last time education changed in a massive way coincided with the movement from an agricultural society to an industrial society, a change that gained speed rapidly in the late nineteenth century and fostered the social imbalances of the Gilded Age and the subsequent rise of the Progressive Movement. With the exception of collective bargaining and desegregation, almost all of the contemporary structures of schooling, and of school governance, flow from this era. We work in organizations designed in 1916. (Kerchner, Koppich, & Weeres, 1997, p. 6.)

There should be little doubt in anyone's mind at this point in the evolution of American education that our schools need a transformation in terms of how they are organized and how the people in them work together to get things done. The venerable assumption that the principal must be *the instructional leader* of a school is no longer relevant. In fact, placing all of our leadership eggs in the principal's basket has often resulted in a rigid, bureaucratic organizational structure that has discouraged teachers from exercising the quality and quantity of leadership needed to bring about the long-awaited

rebirth of schooling in America. If nothing else, the reform movements of the past 15 or 20 years have forced us to take a closer look at how things in schools get done—or don't get done!

Perhaps the one constant stemming from the educational reform movements, regardless of the direction these movements have taken over the past 15 or 20 years, is the growing importance placed on setting higher standards and holding those responsible accountable for meeting those standards. Increasingly, students, teachers, administrators, schools, and even entire school districts are being held to higher and higher standards of accountability. And we are seeing unmistakable evidence in many places around the country that failure is no longer an option. Requiring students to pass state tests to graduate, issuing school report cards that show how well local schools and school districts are doing in relation to their counterparts, enacting takeover provisions for low-performing schools and even entire school districts, and other high-stakes options are either under consideration or have already been adopted in many states and localities (Harrington-Lueker, 1998). One of the most dramatic manifestations of this prevailing climate of heightened accountability and the resulting high-stakes options for holding institutions and individuals responsible is the emergence and growth of teacher peer assistance and review (PAR) programs across the nation.

Peer Review and the New Unionism

PAR programs have been in existence for about 20 years in isolated localities, but they have not generally attracted widespread national attention until quite recently. In the words of Bradley (1998), "In the past year, the idea of peer review has rocketed into the policy spotlight amid a greater focus on accountability in education" (p. 1). Toledo, Ohio, is widely credited with pioneering peer review, beginning in 1981 (American Federation of Teachers/National Education Association [AFT/NEA], 1998), but at least 11 other states (Alaska, California, Florida, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New York, Oklahoma, Utah, and Washington) had references to ongoing programs in the literature by 1999.

Perhaps the most dramatic commitment to peer assistance and review programs to date is a state-supported peer evaluation program proposed by Governor Gray Davis for the state of California and subsequently passed by the Legislature during the Spring of 1999 (Sandham, 1999). One of the uniquenesses of this initiative is that four major California education stakeholders (the state NEA and AFT affiliates as well as the administrators' and school boards' associations) came together to express a collaborative commitment to work together to help alleviate concerns associated with the first statewide PAR program for teachers. Under the new legislation, local school districts' participation in the California PAR program is statutorily voluntary, but financial incentives ensure the participation of most, if not all, school districts in the state. Districts that miss the deadline for the implementation of PAR programs stand to miss out on hundreds of millions of dollars in state aid for teacher development.

The AFT and the NEA, the nation's two largest teacher unions, with a combined membership of nearly 4 million teachers, have taken an increasingly active role in the discussions surrounding PAR. In fact, both the AFT and the NEA have adopted resolutions in support of PAR programs. This high level of interest and involvement by teacher unions in peer assistance and review programs is clearly due to a number of factors, not the least of which is a bold new trend in labor-management relations that has been termed the "new unionism" framework (NEA, 1998).

NEA has described New Unionism to its membership in terms of four basic concepts:

- We're working to cooperate and collaborate with management to improve the quality of public education for all students.
- We're placing a much higher priority within our union on improving the knowledge and skills of teachers.
- We're putting quality issues front and center in all our advocacy efforts, including bargaining and lobbying.
- The roles of teachers are changing, and teacher unions must change. (NEA, 1998, pp. 21-22)

At the heart of New Unionism is the realization that America cannot have good schools without good teachers and that teacher unions have a great deal to gain by collaborating with other stakeholders in the educational enterprise to improve the quality of teachers and teaching in the nation's schools. New Unionism is not about relinquishing power; it is about sharing power and exercising the responsibility that accompanies the sharing of power in a different framework. New Unionism involves a whole new set of leadership roles for a whole new cadre of teacher leaders, not the least of which is a growing responsibility for evaluating the work of their professional colleagues. As Kerchner et al. (1997) have noted,

> Peer review is probably the most powerful demonstration that teachers create and display a knowledge of practice. In the twenty or so school districts that have tried it, teachers have found that peer review brings higher standards to teaching. It significantly changes the conception of teaching work by recognizing the importance of engagement and commitment as well as skill and technique. It recognizes a legitimate role for teachers in establishing and enforcing standards in their own occupation. For unions, it represents both a radical departure from established industrial norms and a rediscovery of traditional craft union and guild functions. (p. 87)

The growing emphasis on teacher leadership in America's schools mirrors a similar trend in American industry, where top-down, bureaucratic, decision-making models are being forsaken in favor of more participatory approaches that foster higher levels of commitment and production at all levels in an organization. Teacher unions that formerly focused their attention on bargaining for wages, terms, and conditions of employment are now broadening their scope to include issues that were formerly considered to be management prerogatives. Teaching and teacher evaluation have become a major focus of the New Unionism. Lieberman (1998) has expressed the view that teacher union proposals to deal with incompetent teachers in the ranks will be a good test of the New Unionism while, at the same time, expressing the view that "'peer review' is the most prominent feature of the new unionism" (p. 2). However,

Lieberman is not overly optimistic that peer review will measure up to expectations and has expressed some concern that it may very well undermine the authority of the principalship.

In its guide for local affiliates, titled *Facilitating the Dialog on Peer Assistance and Peer Review*, the NEA (1998) sums up its commitment to total involvement in issues related to teachers and teaching: "Today, we believe there isn't any decision affecting what happens in the classroom that shouldn't involve us. Modern unions need to be involved in the full range of decisions that affect how teachers teach and students learn" (p. 23).

Although we do not expect PAR programs to solve all the ills of education, we do believe that the shifts that are occurring in terms of shared leadership and joint responsibility for quality teaching have the potential to energize American education by creating a true partnership among the major players in the educational establishment, thereby fundamentally altering the ways in which schools work. PAR programs have the potential to substantially improve the quality of teaching in thousands of classrooms across the nation, raise output in terms of the quality and quantity of student learning, and last, to help educators take a giant step toward making teaching a true profession. Whether or not these positive outcomes will be realized remains to be seen, but we believe that the inherent potential for positive change should not be dismissed out of hand.

What Is Peer Assistance and Review?

The fundamental purpose of PAR programs is to help teachers help teachers. There are, however, a number of important secondary or implied purposes for PAR programs, which we discuss at length in Chapter 2. Although *peer assistance* and *peer review* are two distinct functions, they are most frequently linked in a comprehensive approach to improving teacher quality by providing support and assistance to a broad range of teachers while simultaneously setting and maintaining high standards for teaching performance. Peer assistance aims to help new and veteran teachers improve their knowledge and skills. Such a program links new teachers—or struggling veteran teachers—with "consulting teachers" who provide

TABLE 1.1 Peer Assistance Versus Peer Review

Peer Assistance	*Peer Review*
Formative	Summative
Quality assurance	Quality control
Can exist independently	Coexists with peer assistance
"Low stakes"	"High stakes"
Improves individual teachers	Improves teaching profession

ongoing support through observation, modeling, sharing ideas and skills, and recommending materials for further study. Consulting teachers are veteran teachers who are themselves effective in their classrooms but who also have the ability and desire to work cooperatively and effectively with other teachers.

Peer review adds one significant element to the peer assistance. Consulting teachers make formal evaluations of participating teachers, complete with recommendations regarding their continued employment (AFT/NEA, 1998, p. 3).

In Table 1.1, we outline some of the key differences between the two major components of PAR programs, peer assistance and peer review. Perhaps the most fundamental difference between them is that peer assistance is a formative process, whereas peer review is a summative one. That is, the primary purpose of peer assistance is to help teachers improve their teaching skills, whereas the primary purpose of peer review is to render a judgment about the quality of a teacher's teaching. Another way to look at the difference is that, whereas peer assistance is concerned with quality assurance, peer review is concerned with issues of quality control. Last, from the perspective of a teacher participating in the PAR process, peer assistance could be termed "low-stakes" evaluation, whereas peer review could be termed "high-stakes" evaluation.

In PAR programs, the local teacher union (or association in states without collective bargaining) assumes the primary responsibility for working with teachers to help them improve the quality of their teaching. This is the peer assistance component. In terms of peer review, the local teacher union or association shares responsibility for reviewing the teaching performance of their teacher colleagues who are receiving peer assistance and, in many cases, mak-

ing recommendations to the district administration concerning the future employment status of these colleagues. We want to make it very clear, however, that the result of peer review is a recommendation only. The ultimate decision concerning employment should always be made by the board of education on the recommendation of the district administration.

The difference between peer assistance and peer review can also be seen by examining how these two components relate to one other. It is important to note that a peer assistance program can exist without a formal peer review program being in place (and many do). A peer assistance program, such as a mentoring program for new teachers, for example, can exist and assist teachers in efforts to improve instruction without a peer review program being in place. We believe, however, that peer review should never exist in isolation from peer assistance. We are also firmly convinced that in those instances where peer assistance and peer review programs coexist, the primary emphasis should always be placed on peer assistance.

We must point out at this juncture, however, that there is an evaluative aspect of peer assistance. There must be! How could anyone expect a consulting teacher to assist a colleague unless the consulting teacher first makes some informed judgment about his or her colleague's performance in relation to some set of standards? What does the teacher do well? What does he or she do poorly? Answering these questions involves making judgments. The differences between peer assistance and peer review, then, do not lie in the presence or absence of evaluation. Rather, the differences lie in the purposes and, ultimately, the uses of the results of the evaluation. We will deal with the use of PAR results in Chapter 5.

A final major difference between the peer assistance and peer review, then, has to do with intended outcomes. The aim of peer assistance is to improve the performance of *individual teachers*. Through this highly formative process, teachers can receive assistance from their veteran colleagues in dealing with difficulties that they have been experiencing in the classroom, thereby becoming more effective classroom teachers. The primary purpose of peer review, on the other hand, is to improve the *teaching profession*. This is done by removing incompetent teachers from the classroom, either by advising them to leave or by recommending termination. There will be times when all the resources of peer assistance have been exhausted in an effort to improve a teacher's performance, and that teacher is

still unable or unwilling to perform up to expected standards. At this time, peer review requires that a judgment be made that the profession would be better served if that teacher were no longer allowed to serve in a teaching role. The intended result of peer review is to improve the profession by holding all of its members accountable to set standards of teaching quality.

Similarities and Differences Among PAR Programs

So what do existing PAR programs have in common? How are they different? Let us begin with the common features (American Federation of Teachers/ National Education Association, 1998). They all

- Were created through collective bargaining agreements or through joint affiliate/school district agreements in non-bargaining states
- Require a shared focus on improving teaching on the part of teachers and their union and the school district, including administrators
- Involve joint decisions to be made by teachers and administrators
- Provide assistance to new teachers and/or veteran teachers who are at risk of termination due to poor performance and/ or veteran teachers voluntarily seeking to improve their teaching practice
- Have a process for identifying and training outstanding teachers to provide peer assistance and, in a peer assistance and review program, peer evaluation
- Have resources dedicated to implementing the program

PAR programs vary in terms of

- Who is served
- The extent and kinds of services provided
- Whether participation in the program is confidential

- Whether participation in the program is mandatory
- Whether consulting teachers formally evaluate teachers
- Whether consulting teachers make recommendations regarding termination of continued employment
- Whether, or in what circumstances, terminated employees are provided with union representation

Why Peer Review?

There are a number of compelling reasons why educators should embrace PAR programs. Aside from the obvious need that most educators feel to respond in a creative and proactive way to the increasingly vocal demands of policy makers for increased effectiveness and accountability, we would suggest three other important considerations. First, we are convinced that high-quality teaching is the key to successful schools and that all teachers need some help to become the best teachers they can be. Second, the approaches that schools and school districts have been using to assist teachers in their efforts to improve instruction have not proven to be particularly effective. Last, there is a growing body of evidence that peer review and peer assistance are promising alternatives to past and present models to improve the quality of teaching in our schools and should therefore be considered for implementation on a fairly broad scale.

All Teachers Need Help, Some More Than Others

In *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) noted that

> After a decade of reform, we have finally learned in hindsight what should have been clear from the start: Most schools and teachers cannot produce the kind of learning demanded by the new reforms—not because they do not want to, but because they do not know how, and the systems in which they work do not support them in doing so. . . . Most current educators were prepared years ago in pro-

> grams that did not envision the kinds of challenges schools now confront and did not have access to the knowledge about teaching and learning available today. (p. 5)

In detailing those challenges that schools now confront and the expectations that have been created for teachers that they have not been prepared to meet, the Commission had this to say:

> To help diverse learners master much more challenging content, teachers must go far beyond dispensing information, giving a test, and assigning a grade. They must themselves know more about the foundations of the subject areas, and they must understand how students think as well as what they know in order to create experiences that produce learning. Moreover, as students with a wider range of learning needs enter and stay in school—a growing number whose first language is not English, many others with learning differences, and others with learning disabilities—teachers need access to the growing knowledge that exists about how to teach these learners effectively. (p. 8)

This is not to suggest that most teachers are not professional or that most teachers do not know how to teach well. However, it does highlight the changing demands of teaching and the difficulties teachers are experiencing in their efforts to adjust to a new set of circumstances that often do not match their training or, in some cases, even their previous experiences as teachers. It also accentuates the isolation of teachers, not just from their colleagues but from new knowledge about how to more effectively teach an increasingly diverse and demanding group of students in a rapidly expanding and more complex curriculum.

The issue is further complicated by the large number of teachers without proper teaching credentials who have been pressed into service because of the severe shortage of qualified teachers in a number of fields. Although severe teaching shortages exist in many locations around the country, the situation is especially critical in California, due partly to an initiative in 1996 to reduce class size. Reducing class size has resulted in a dramatic increase in the need for additional teachers to staff thousands of additional classrooms. Colvin (1998), writing in the *Los Angeles Times*, observed that "becoming a teacher

in California is nearly as easy as getting a job at McDonald's." Writes Colvin, "No experience? No problem." As one teacher candidate noted, "If you have a degree and a pulse you get snapped up." Emergency credentialing, which has been termed the "backdoor approach" by Colvin, "has allowed virtually anyone with a college degree into the classroom—especially if they are willing to teach in an urban area, or work with students who don't speak English, or work with those with learning handicaps." Colvin reports that 11% of California's teachers lack full teaching credentials. In the Los Angeles Unified School District, "where needy students cry out for the best, most experienced instructors," 6,000 teachers hold emergency certificates, and as many as 20% of the teachers in a dozen other districts in Los Angeles County are also uncertified. In Compton, California, elementary schools, the number is as high as 60%. These large numbers of teachers without proper credentials need a lot of help.

Even for fully credentialed teachers, there is still the problem of matching their experience and training to their particular teaching assignments. One of the least recognized and most significant causes of unqualified teachers in the classroom is the assignment of out-of-field teachers to teach subjects and classes for which they are not properly trained. The numbers of teachers teaching out of field can be quite considerable. In fact, the results of a recent survey have suggested that as many as one third of all high school mathematics teachers do not have a major or a minor in that field. Similarly, as many as one fourth of all high school English teachers do not have an appropriate major or minor for their teaching assignments (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). These data suggest that there are a lot of high school students who are being taught subjects by teachers who lack the basic qualifications to teach these subjects. These teachers also need a lot of help.

Without question, some teachers do a poor job in the classroom for one reason or another. These teachers need assistance to become more effective. But all teachers, even the very best, can be better than they are. In any profession, the expectation exists that members will constantly be striving to grow and develop beyond the level at which they are presently functioning. PAR programs offer the promise of assistance to promote professional growth for all teachers, regardless of where they are in terms of their particular stage of professional development.

Teachers Haven't Been Receiving the Help That They Need to Improve

Performance evaluation is a necessary catalyst for improvement and a widely recognized responsibility associated with the exercise of leadership. In a school setting, performance evaluation has traditionally been the prerogative of the school principal as a key part of her or his responsibility for providing instructional leadership. In fact, for more than a century, performance evaluation has largely been regarded as the exclusive right of the principal by both teachers and administrators. Administrators, acting on behalf of school boards, have exercised almost total control over conditions affecting the working lives of teachers. Nowhere has this total control been more evident than in the area of performance evaluation. The results should have been all too predictable—stagnation of the teaching profession and the subsequent failure of American schooling.

More than a decade ago, we were part of a national research team that conducted an in-depth study of instructional leadership in American high schools (Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelly, & McCleary, 1990). Initially, our expectations were that, in accordance with the general thinking and attitudes reflected in the profession at that time, principals would assume primary responsibility for instructional leadership and be recognized by teachers as *the instructional leaders* in their schools. But that turned out not to be the case. We uncovered convincing evidence that instructional leadership, at least in the most effective schools we studied, was a shared responsibility. In no instance did we find a principal in an effective school who was the sole source of instructional leadership, and only in a very few isolated instances could the principal even be characterized as a primary source. It was surprising that most of the teachers we talked with told us that they "never sought the advice of the principal on instructional matters" and that discussions of instructional improvements tended to be "department centered" rather than "school centered." More often than not, department chairpersons were identified as the major source of instructional leadership in the secondary schools we studied.

This should not have been a surprising finding, given the breadth and complexity of modern high school curriculums. Principals have neither the knowledge nor the skills nor the time required

to provide primary instructional leadership in so many diverse and divergent fields. One of the authors, Leonard, is a former high school principal. His teaching expertise was in the area of English, and he was certified as a secondary language arts teacher. Another author, Lorin, was a secondary mathematics teacher. It would be patently ridiculous for anyone to assume that if Leonard happened to be the principal of the school where Lorin was teaching mathematics that Leonard could provide substantive instructional leadership in Lorin's area of expertise. But this is exactly the kind of thinking that has led many of us to assume that the principal can and should be the instructional leader of a school.

The best that principals can hope to do in working with teachers across a broad range of academic fields is to make informed professional judgments as to how well teachers employ a generally accepted set of generic instructional skills (e.g., organizing and managing classrooms, planning instruction, delivering instruction, and assessing student progress toward learning objectives). At most, this might allow a principal to make a rough estimate as to whether a teacher is competent or not in the use of these generic instructional skills. This estimate must necessarily be rough, because without in-depth content knowledge and the associated pedagogical content knowledge, an observer of a teaching performance has no way of knowing if the teacher has

- Chosen the *proper* learning objectives for a *particular* lesson
- *Matched* those objectives with the *most suitable* teaching techniques in light of the students being taught
- *Employed* the selected teaching techniques *appropriately*
- *Used* the *proper* formative and summative assessment techniques to determine how well students have achieved the learning objectives.

This is pretty complex stuff when put into the proper context. For a principal to truly judge the effectiveness of a teacher in a given subject field, the principal would have to (at a minimum) be the equal, in content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, of the teacher being evaluated. It is a rare set of circumstances indeed

that would permit this situation to occur. For highly technical and complex fields, such as mathematics and science, the principal will rarely be the content or pedagogical content knowledge equal of the teacher because relatively few principals have mathematics or science teaching backgrounds. Even for those few principals who do, their subject content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge can quickly become obsolete because they do not have adequate time to maintain their academic edge due to the pressing demands of their other administrative and leadership responsibilities.

Simply recognizing the differences between effective and ineffective teaching does not say anything about the instructional leader's responsibility to provide assistance to teachers who need to improve their performance in the classroom. If being able to judge the quality of a teaching performance is as complex as we have described it, then imagine just how much more complex and time-consuming a matter it is to provide the assistance that teachers need to improve their performance. Now, more than ever, teachers—particularly teachers who are new to the profession—are in need of assistance.

As we mentioned earlier, because of the rising demand for teachers due to factors such as retirements, high turnover rates, and reduction in class size, many teachers are entering the profession without adequate preparation. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996), citing data from the Nation Center for Education Statistics, has reported that as many as 12% of new teachers enter the field without any training at all, and another 14% enter without having fully met state standards. "By some estimates, four million students are being taught essential subjects by teachers who neither majored nor minored in the subjects they're teaching" (Merrow Report Forum, 1999, p. 4). Furthermore, more than 40 states permit districts to hire teachers on emergency certificates even though these teachers have not met basic standards.

That the turnover rates for new teachers can sometimes be as high as one third to one half in urban areas should not come as a surprise. Colvin (1998) reports that, "In Los Angeles County, for example, a third of the teachers hired in 1994 quit within three years. Other districts report attrition rates as high as 50%. Among unlicenced teachers, attrition is estimated to be as high as 70%." The

National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) had this to say about the high turnover rates among new teachers: "Of all of education's self-inflicted wounds, the continued tolerance for extraordinary turnover among new teachers is among the most remarkable" (p. 39).

Based on an analysis of a comprehensive, nationally representative survey of teachers and schools conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics, Ingersol (1999) concluded that the "amount of turnover accounted for by retirement is relatively minor when compared to that resulting from two related causes—teacher job dissatisfaction and teachers pursuing better jobs or other careers" (p. 5). Among other factors, Ingersol listed inadequate support from the administration and limited faculty input into school decision making as major contributors to high rates of teacher turnover. We believe that this turnover rate could be substantially reduced if novice teachers could have the professional support they need for successful induction into the profession. A similar claim could also be made on behalf of experienced teachers who are struggling day after day, year after year in their classrooms. Most principals simply do not have the time, expertise, or in some cases the inclination to provide the amount and quality of support that many teachers need to perform at a consistently high level in their classrooms.

The systems that have been in place for more than a century were not designed to emphasize and promote instructional improvement. Unfortunately, they have not even done a very effective job of maintaining an acceptable level of quality control. What they have been effective in doing is creating a climate of low expectations for both principals and teachers and made it increasingly difficult for schools to meet their responsibilities to their students. Furthermore, the inability of the designated "instructional leaders" to provide the assistance required to help new teachers and struggling veteran teachers to improve their performance has also contributed significantly to the early exit of many teachers from the profession.

A reasonable conclusion that can be drawn from the foregoing discussion is that principals simply cannot be the instructional leaders for schools, no matter how much they should be or might want to be. Instructional leadership must be a shared responsibility with teachers helping to fill the instructional leadership void that

presently exists in all schools by working with their colleagues in formal relationships designed to improve classroom performance. PAR programs are one means for teachers to share responsibility for instructional leadership.

Peer Review—A Promising Alternative

Although PAR programs have a relatively brief history on the American educational landscape, the results achieved in these programs thus far are fairly impressive. The AFT and NEA summarized the results of six established PAR programs around the country (Toledo, Ohio; Cincinnati, Ohio; Columbus, Ohio; New York City; Rochester, New York; and Minneapolis, Minnesota). Among their findings are these:

- The RAND Corporation recognized the Toledo plan as one of the best teacher evaluation programs in the country. The Toledo plan also received praise from the Commission on Teaching and America's Future. In comparison to past approaches to teacher evaluation, the Toledo program set a much higher standard for success. About 10% of new teachers evaluated under the Toledo plan are not rehired, as compared to 1% to 2% when new teacher evaluation was solely an administrative function. Last, about one third of teachers referred for intervention each year have left teaching at the end of the year through resignation, retirement, or dismissal.

- Cincinnati has achieved similar results as those achieved in Toledo. About one third of the teachers referred for intervention each year leave teaching by the end of the year through resignation, retirement, or dismissal. The other two thirds of the referred teachers have improved their performance substantially. During the first 5 years of the program, approximately 60% of teacher dismissals for poor performance resulted from peer review in contrast with approximately 40% from administrative evaluation. In terms of new teachers, 5% of new teachers were dismissed under peer review as compared to less than 2% of the new teachers evaluated by principals.

- In Columbus, after 5 years, 80% of new teachers were retained in teaching, in contrast to a 50% retention rate for new teachers at the

national level. The intervention program had served 178 teachers, 44% of whom were released in good standing; another 12% resigned, and 30% retired.

- In Rochester, 10% of the 60 teachers assigned to the intervention program since 1988 have left the profession. The others reportedly increased their teaching quality substantially.

Although the results achieved by existing PAR programs are at this relatively early state of development a little sketchy and, therefore, cannot document a consistent track record over an extended period, the available results are encouraging. PAR programs show promise as a viable means for bringing interested parties together to establish and promote higher standards for teacher quality. They guarantee greater involvement on the part of teachers and provide them with a more central role in matters relating to employment decisions. Last, teachers have been increasingly responsible for providing the necessary assistance and support that all teachers need to become the best teachers they can be.

Why Not Peer Review?

Any innovation that substantially shakes the foundations of traditional practice is bound to raise concern on the part of some. We all need to recognize that an innovation of the magnitude of PAR simply cannot exist without a few reservations. Both teachers and administrators are divided to some degree in their opinions about the desirability and functionality of PAR programs. Typically, these reservations fall into three broad categories: (a) the appropriateness of the evaluator role for teachers, (b) legal concerns, especially those related to the impact of peer review on union membership and responsibilities, and (c) the costs associated with implementing PAR programs, particularly in relation to the benefits. Although concerns for the appropriateness of the evaluator role for teachers and the costs associated with PAR programs would apply in almost every instance where peer review programs are presently being contemplated or are already in place, concerns relating to peer review and union membership would, of course, apply only in those instances

where collective bargaining agreements exist. For those who are interested, Lieberman (1998) has provided a very thoughtful analysis of the possible pitfalls associated with PAR programs in his book, *Teachers Evaluating Teachers: Peer Review and the New Unionism.* In the sections following, we discuss briefly the appropriateness of the evaluator role for teachers and some of the legal concerns associated with PAR programs. A discussion of the costs of PAR programs appears in Chapter 3.

Appropriateness of the Evaluator Role for Teachers

As we mentioned earlier, teacher evaluation has long been a management prerogative, and many believe that the evaluator role is and should permanently be reserved for building principals. Lieberman (1998), for example, has expressed the opinion that peer review weakens principals because it implies that principals are not carrying out their responsibilities effectively. Others are afraid that if teachers are given the responsibility to evaluate their colleagues, then the collegial relationships that exist between teachers will be irreparably harmed. Still others are fearful that principals will handpick their favorite teachers for the evaluators' role rather than choosing those who are most qualified. Both teachers and administrators share the concern that teachers may not be "tough enough" to handle the responsibilities that go hand in hand with making summative value judgments about the quality of their colleagues' teaching performances. Some question the wisdom of removing some of the very best teachers from their classrooms (even on a temporary basis) in order for them to be able to perform in a consulting teacher role.

Without question, some, if not all, of these concerns are justified. There is a danger that relationships among teachers could be damaged unless great care is taken to preserve those relationships or that the wrong people could be placed in the role of evaluator. It is not beyond reason to assume that many teachers may find it extremely difficult to make those demanding value judgments concerning the performance of their colleagues, especially when they are not properly trained to render and defend those judgments or when such judgments could potentially have serious negative consequences in

terms of job security. And removing excellent teachers from their classrooms to perform as consulting teachers, even for a single day, is not accomplished without a significant sacrifice on the part of the children they would otherwise have been teaching.

Despite all the arguments to the contrary, however, we maintain that teachers are arguably the best and most abundant source of instructional leadership available in schools today. Furthermore, performance evaluation is not exclusively a management right; in its broadest sense, performance evaluation is a leadership function. Teachers have the commitment, the knowledge, and the skills to make a significant difference in how their colleagues teach if we can find the means to give them the opportunities they need to act on what they know and can do. In their thought-provoking book, *United Mind Workers,* Kerchner et al. (1997) make this point very strongly:

> Teachers care about changes in teaching and learning. They know more about how children think and learn—and the conditions that promote thinking and learning—than do governors, business leaders, and most college professors. Why, we thought, is this voice of expertise not well articulated? And the answer kept coming back, "But teaching isn't organized that way." Collective bargaining legitimated teachers' economic interest, but it never recognized them as experts about learning. (p. 7)

Because of their responsibility to evaluate teachers, principals have long been recognized as experts in the area of teaching and learning when surely many of them are not! Peer assistance and review has the potential to provide the ultimate recognition of the expertise of teachers in the critical areas of teaching and learning. In fact, the very presence of PAR programs can significantly alter the organizational structure in a fundamental way by placing teachers at the center of the quality assurance and quality control processes. After all is said and done, the individual with the power to say whether or not a particular teaching performance is of sufficient quality is the recognized expert. Peer assistance and review alters the status quo and places teachers squarely in the role of experts when it comes to making value judgments about teacher quality.

Legal Concerns Related to Union Membership and Responsibilities

One legal concern related to PAR in locations where collective bargaining exists is whether or not consulting teachers who perform an evaluative function in PAR programs can be members of the bargaining unit. The central question to be addressed in such an instance is, Does the performance of a "supervisory" function exclude one from membership in the union within the meaning of the relevant state collective bargaining legislation? The NEA has prepared a rather extensive analysis of the potential legal concerns associated with PAR and has concluded that a consulting teacher does not have to be excluded from the bargaining unit (NEA, 1998). However, the NEA recommends that the relevant collective bargaining agreement expressly prohibit a school district from seeking to exclude consulting teachers from the bargaining unit based on their participation in a PAR program.

A second legal concern has to do with whether or not a union can participate in the development and implementation of a PAR program while at the same time meeting its obligations to individual members. This concern arises from a union's "duty of fair representation" (DFR) to represent exclusively all the members of its bargaining unit. DFR, which is recognized in both the private and public sectors, applies as a union is negotiating or administering a contract and most commonly arises in the processing of grievances (AFT/NEA, 1998). The chief concern here is whether a union that is a participant in a PAR program that may make recommendations for termination can at the same time effectively represent the interests of a grievant who may be facing termination as a result of the PAR program. Although DFR does not require a union to pursue every grievance that might arise, there needs to be some rational and reasonable procedure for equally protecting the rights of all union members.

The NEA and the AFT have adopted different policies for dealing with the grievances that may arise out of PAR programs. The differences are summarized in a joint AFT/NEA (1998) document:

> The NEA's analysis of DFR liability suggests that local unions decline to provide representation in all cases arising

> out of a peer assistance and review program on a uniform, nondiscriminatory basis. This approach assumes that the underlying peer assistance and review program operates in a way that safeguards the employment rights of the participating teacher and that the consulting teacher acted responsibly and in good faith. The AFT recommends that the local union follow the requisite procedures for deciding whether to process any other type of grievance arising under the collective bargaining agreement. These procedures include a good-faith investigation into the merits of each grievance. (pp. 11-12)

Given the history of PAR programs to date, it does not appear that the goals of such programs are in direct conflict with a union's obligation under DFR. At any rate, "There do not appear to be insurmountable legal problems with the notion of peer assistance and peer review programs" (AFT/NEA, 1998, p. 12) as these programs relate to union membership and representation.

PAR Programs: Should We or Shouldn't We?

Perhaps the key question to be addressed by teachers and school administrators is not, "Should teachers be given the responsibility to serve as peer reviewers?" Rather, the proper question may well be, "Do the potential benefits to be realized from PAR programs outweigh the associated risks and costs that accompany them?"

As we have noted, most of the approaches we have taken to improve teacher quality in the past have produced mediocre results at best. All of us who work as educators continue to suffer from the results of poor teaching. To the same extent that we allow poor teaching to exist, and in some places even to flourish, so will the reputation of the teaching profession be tarnished. The results of poor teaching will be visited on the entire profession over and over again in the faces of children who come to classrooms unprepared to meet the new challenges they must face or to master the knowledge and skills that they will need to become productive citizens in an increasingly demanding and complex society.

We believe that the potential that PAR programs have to improve teacher quality outweighs the associated costs and potential risks. Therefore, we think it is advisable for all the major stakeholders in the educational establishment to join forces to create successful PAR programs, even if substantial cost and risk are involved. Although we must freely acknowledge that taking a calculated risk in the present creates the possibility of failure in the future, we also want to stress that avoiding a calculated risk in the present guarantees failure in the present as well as in the future. We also acknowledge that regardless of the setting, reservations about the desirability and feasibility of PAR programs must be addressed and effectively dealt with if they are to have a realistic chance of being successful.

Where Do We Go From Here and How Will We Get There?

What would a PAR program look like if it were designed in such a way as to provide maximum gains in terms of its ability to improve instruction for students in classroom while at the same time promoting a high level of trust, support, protection, dignity, and growth among participating teachers? Does such a program exist? Is it even possible for such a program to exist in light of the magnitude of the constraints faced by our nation's schools as we enter the 21st century? These are some of the questions we address in the following chapters by drawing from the experiences of teachers and administrators who are participants in some of the most well-established PAR programs around the country.

In Chapter 1 we have introduced the context, status, key concepts, and major components related to peer assistance and peer review. Chapter 2 is devoted to the role of decision making in the establishment of PAR programs. Good decision making is defined in terms of "informed professional judgment," and each of these three words is defined and discussed in detail. Questions that must be answered by those designing PAR programs are raised, and alternative answers to these questions are explored. Chapter 3 contains a discussion of the "key players" and how they function in the PAR

process. Roles, relationships, and responsibilities of those involved in the PAR process are defined and discussed in terms of how peer assistance and peer review are practiced in school districts in real-life contexts. Chapter 4 contains a discussion of the challenges involved with setting criteria, establishing standards, and gathering evidence in PAR programs. Methods by which criteria and standards can be established are described. Methods for collecting evidence are presented, discussed, and illustrated. Special emphasis is given to the need for careful alignment among criteria, standards, and evidence. In Chapter 5, we deal with the reporting and use of the results of PAR programs. Results can be communicated orally and in writing; results can be used for improvement or employment purposes. Issues related to communication and use are discussed. Last, in Chapter 6, we present and discuss a set of recommendations for initiating PAR programs in new settings as well as for improving PAR programs already in existence.

We have arrived at an important crossroads in American education. Our problems are such that no one person or group can solve them. As educators, we must, at long last, recognize that we are all in this together. Hopefully, we are approaching a time when all the major stakeholders in the educational establishment will feel the need to come together and speak with a united voice to make our schools what they need to be to best serve the interests of our children.

Teacher organizations have placed improved student learning at the heart of their mission statements. Although there is a need to build more secure bridges among teacher unions, school administrators, and school boards, recent efforts point the way to a new era in which members of these three groups can join forces on behalf of student advocacy and professional accountability (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996).

2

Ten Essential Questions Before You Begin

Suppose you wanted to develop a teacher peer assistance and review program. Where would you begin? You may begin by attending a conference at which PAR programs are discussed. You may begin by reading about PAR programs, perhaps accessing the material on a variety of web sites (see Resource A). You may begin by visiting a school district that is using a PAR program. Conferences, reading materials, and visitations are ways in which educators learn about most innovative programs (e.g., Success for All) and reform efforts (e.g., Coalition of Essential Schools).

All these ways of getting information about innovative programs and reform efforts have their advantages and disadvantages. On the "plus side," conferences often allow face-to-face interactions and discussions with program developers and reform gurus, reading materials provide more in-depth knowledge of the program or reform, and visitations allow you to see what you have read or heard about in operation. In terms of disadvantages, the excitement of meeting the program developer or reform guru is difficult to "package" and bring home with you. The reading materials may provide more information than you care to know. Consequently, you may end up more confused than enlightened. And, although visitations provide a glimpse of the program or reform as it exists,

they often provide little information about how the program or reform came to be.

So how can we make sense of the vast amount of information about PAR programs that is out there in various forms. We believe we need questions to help us focus our attention and information-gathering efforts. Consequently, in this chapter, we lay out a series of 10 questions (in some cases, related sets of questions) that are intended as guides to both the review of available information and the development of PAR programs. These questions can be asked of program developers and reform gurus, used to focus your reading of relevant materials, and/or employed during interviews of various people encountered during on-site visits. Although specific PAR programs may come and go, these questions will remain. We firmly believe that the key to developing sound, defensible teacher PAR programs lies in finding reasonable and workable answers to these 10 questions. The complete set of questions is displayed in Table 2.1.

Question 1: What Is the Purpose of the Program?

PAR programs can vary in their purposes. Consider, for example, the statement made by Dal Lawrence (personal communication, November, 1999), developer of the nationally recognized Toledo Plan:

> Peer review is the first logical step in creating a real profession for classroom teachers based on teaching performance standards. . . . We want to create our own practice criteria and standards, eliminate those who cannot meet the standards, and help those who do meet the standards reach their full potential as quickly as possible.

Three purposes are embedded in this statement: (a) creating a teaching profession, (b) eliminating teachers who cannot meet standards, and (c) helping teachers to reach their full potential.

The AFT (2000) suggests that PAR programs have three goals: (a) to allow union involvement in program implementation and

TABLE 2.1 Questions to Consider When Developing a Teacher Peer Review and Assistance Program

1. What is the purpose of the program and which teachers will the program serve?
2. What are the program criteria and standards? Who establishes them? How are they established?
3. What data needs to be collected? How are the data to be collected? Who is responsible for collecting the data? What qualifications and training do these people need?
4. How should the data collected be related back to the criteria and standards?
5. Will there be a formal written report of the review? If so, who is responsible for preparing it? Who has access to it and how can it be used?
6. What forms of assistance are available to the participating teachers following the review?
7. Are employment decisions to be made based on the review? If so, who makes them? What recourse does the participating teacher have if the decision is negative?
8. How will the program operate?
9. How will the program be governed?
10. How much money is needed to support the program? What will be the source(s) of the needed financial resources?

evaluation, (b) to provide assistance to inexperienced teachers, and (c) to recruit qualified teachers to provide peer assistance and peer review. The first purpose is related to creating a teaching profession, whereas the second is very similar to helping teachers reach their full potential. However, another purpose is added to Lawrence's list: recruiting qualified teachers to conduct the review and provide assistance. This, as might be expected, replaces Lawrence's

expressed purpose of "eliminating teachers who cannot meet the standards."

Having the right purpose or purposes is not important. In fact, there are no right ones. Having a well-thought-out, agreed on, and clearly stated purpose, on the other hand, is the first step in developing a PAR program.

A clear statement of purpose is important for several reasons, not the least of which is to determine for whom the PAR program is intended. As we reviewed the various PAR programs and PAR program proposals, we found there were five categories of teachers who could benefit from participation in a PAR program. They are as follows:

- Novice teachers with no prior teaching experience
- Teachers who have prior teaching experience but are new to a district
- Veteran teachers who are experiencing difficulties in the classroom and who are referred to the program by an administrator or supervisor
- Veteran teachers who want to improve their teaching performance and who voluntarily participate in the program
- Veteran teachers who are up for routine performance evaluations[1]

Most existing programs include teachers in only some of these categories. The New York City Peer Intervention Program, for example, includes only "tenured teachers who are struggling in the classroom and who volunteer to participate" (New York City Board of Education & Unified Federation of Teachers [NYC], 1995). In contrast, the State of California's PAR program includes teachers who "receive an unsatisfactory rating in the biennial evaluation" (Kairott, 1999). In Toledo, all first-year teachers (called "interns") must participate; the program is voluntary for second-year teachers. Cincinnati includes teachers new to the profession as well as those new to the Cincinnati public schools.

Whatever categories of teachers are chosen, the choice must be based on two factors. As mentioned, the first is the purpose of the

program. The second is the amount of money available to support the program. Because money is an issue, priorities among the categories must be established. PAR programs focusing on single categories (e.g., novice teachers with no prior teaching experience; teachers who receive unsatisfactory ratings in their biennial evaluations) are likely to be more affordable. When programs target multiple categories of teachers, we suggest that multiple budgets be established and maintained. The Toledo Plan, for example, includes two programs: an Intern Program (for beginning teachers) and an Intervention Program (for veteran teachers whose performance has been judged to be unsatisfactory). Each program should have its separate budget. In this way, issues pertaining to cost effectiveness can be addressed periodically.

Question 2: What Are the Program's Criteria and Standards?

In contemporary education, the term *standard* has at least two quite distinct meanings. A standard may refer to a performance *area* or a standard may refer to a performance *level*. The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) uses the term to refer to performance areas. Examples of their standards are knowledge of students, knowledge of subject matter, meaningful learning, instructional resources, and reflective practice (NBPTS, 2000). In contrast, the South Carolina State Board of Education establishes performance levels for initial teacher certification. "All applicants for a teaching certificate must take the required examination(s) and score the *minimum qualifying score acceptable* [italics added] for certification as determined by the South Carolina State Board of Education" (South Carolina Department of Education, 2000). The minimum qualifying score acceptable is referred to as the standard.

In an attempt to minimize this confusion, we shall refer to performance areas as *criteria* and performance levels as *standards*. For example, a criterion may be "classroom management" and a related standard might be, "less than 5% of classroom time should be spent by the teacher on classroom management activities." Standards may also be written in terms of improvement. An improvement standard

for the criterion "classroom management" might be, "a reduction of 50% in the time spent by the teacher on classroom management." Last, standards may be written qualitatively. An example of a qualitative standard pertaining to classroom management would be, "the teacher demonstrates excellent classroom management skills." "Excellent," in this situation, might be contrasted with "good," "satisfactory," and "unsatisfactory."

A review of current and proposed PAR programs yields a fairly common set of criteria. In addition to classroom management, they include planning instruction, teaching skills, assessment and evaluation skills, knowledge of subject matter, professional qualities, and relations with students.[2] Furthermore, there is general agreement that the criteria should be related to helping teachers develop or improve knowledge and skills that are clearly related to being good (or better) teachers.

The California legislation, for example, states that "performance goals for individual teachers shall be in writing, clearly stated, aligned with pupil learning goals, and consistent with Section 44662" (State of California, 2000). Section 44662 elaborates on the criteria to be used:

- The progress of pupils toward the standards established [by the governing board of each school district] and, if applicable, the state adopted academic content standards as measured by state adopted criterion referenced assessments
- The instructional techniques and strategies used by the employee
- The employee's adherence to curricular objectives
- The establishment and maintenance of a suitable learning environment, within the scope of the employee's responsibilities

There are criteria, therefore, that lie outside the bounds of PAR programs.

Teachers can be having difficulties on the job that are unrelated to pedagogical issues. For example, they may be in

> the midst of personal crises, or they may be substance abusers. Such teachers, while clearly in need of help, are not candidates for peer assistance and review programs. (AFT/NEA, 1998, p. 18)

In some programs, participating teachers select from among the criteria, thereby establishing what generally are referred to as *performance goals* (see the first statement from the California legislation cited earlier). That is, teachers may be expected to set goals in the areas of classroom management, teaching skills, relations with students, and the like. Typically in PAR programs, the goals are established jointly with the consulting teacher.

The performance goals may or may not include specific standards of performance that must be attained. If they do not include such standards, the standards must be inferred. For example, a goal of a beginning teacher may be to improve in the area of classroom management. How much improvement is needed before the goal is achieved? This is the performance standard question.

Even when there are explicit performance standards, they may be open to multiple interpretations. This is particularly true when qualitative standards are used. Consider the following examples (taken from the Toledo Plan, Toledo Public Schools & Toledo Federation of Teachers [TPS], 1998):

- Outstanding: Performance shows exceptional professional qualities and growth.
- Satisfactory: Performance includes expected and desired professional qualities and growth.
- Unsatisfactory: Performance shows serious weaknesses or deficiencies.

"Exceptional," "expected," "desired," and "serious weaknesses" are all open to multiple interpretations.

Establishing meaningful, explicit, and clearly stated criteria and standards that are aligned with good (or improved) classroom teaching, then, is the second step in developing a PAR program. In addition, if the PAR program is goal based, decisions must be made

concerning who determines the goals, who establishes the performance standards, and how they are determined.

Question 3: What Data Need to Be Collected?

Once criteria, standards, and, perhaps performance goals have been set, attention turns to the business of collecting evidence or, more technically, gathering data. With respect to the criterion of classroom management, a teacher may have the following performance goals:[3]

- Establish reasonable rules for classroom behavior by students and the teacher.
- Maintain a warm, friendly, democratic classroom atmosphere that promotes pupil confidence without loss of dignity.
- Encourage peer acceptance of isolates and individual development of social skills.
- Channel efforts toward self-discipline and self-respect on the part of the students.

These certainly are worthwhile goals.[4] The question now becomes, "How do we assess teacher performance relative to these goals?" Do we videotape teachers teaching in their classrooms? Do we conduct interviews with the teachers and/or with students? Do we require teachers to document their activities with respect to achieving the goals? Do we prepare a set of classroom simulations—written or videotaped—that we ask teachers to analyze? Although these are all possible ways of collecting the needed data,[5] the method most commonly used in teacher PAR programs is classroom observation. Because of the prevalence of classroom observation as the primary data source in PAR programs, we shall continue our discussion with an exclusive focus on observational data (although the very same issues must be addressed regardless of the data source).

When observation is the primary data source, we need to address questions such as the number of observations, the length of

each observation, the instrument used to record what was observed, and the qualifications and training of the observer. Are three observations during the year preferable to two? Is a 20-minute observation sufficient or must an observer stay the entire lesson or class period? Is a structured observation form needed or is a written narrative record preferable? How much experience and expertise do observers need? Is experience sufficient or is additional training needed? As we will see in Chapter 4, similar questions can be asked of (and must be addressed for) whatever methods of data collection are used.

Before moving to the next question, we must be sure that the reader understands what we mean by *data*. Observational data are records of actual teacher behaviors in the classroom—what teachers say and what teachers do. Videotapes of teachers teaching in classrooms are records of teacher behaviors. Structured observation forms often ask observers to record the frequency of a particular type or category of teacher behaviors (e.g., asking questions, disciplining students). Narratives allow observers to note what they saw or heard.

Data are descriptive; they are not evaluative. Data records do require some judgment to be made (e.g., was that a question or not?), but the judgment made is not one of quality (e.g., was that a *good* question or not?). Rating scales are not data. Rather, they are based on data. Consider, for example, a situation in which a consulting teacher, following one or more observations, is asked to rate a teacher's performance pertaining to classroom management on a four-point scale (with 4 denoting *excellent;* 3, *very good;* 2, *satisfactory;* and 1, *unsatisfactory*). Based on what she saw and heard, she assigns a rating of 2. When the teacher who was observed is shown this rating during a postobservation conference, the first word out of her mouth is "Why?" "What did you see or hear—what did I say or do—that led you to give me a rating of 2?" In other words, where is the supporting data?

In the joint language of the AFT/NEA (1998), data is equated with hard evidence: "When making recommendations, [consulting] teachers must have *hard evidence* [italics added] that teachers meet, or do not meet, the standards articulated by the program" (p. 10). If we were to adopt this terminology, "ratings" might be equated with "very soft evidence."

If PAR programs are to be successful, this critical distinction between data (description) and ratings (evaluation) must be made and maintained. Simply stated, a teacher's efforts to improve in the area of classroom management are more likely to be successful if they are based on specific data pertaining to classroom management, rather than the consulting teacher's judgments about the quality of classroom management. This distinction leads quite nicely to our next question.

Question 4: How Will the Data Be Connected to Criteria and Standards?

Once the data have been collected, they must be related back to the criteria and standards. When a criterion is stated clearly and a quantitative standard is used, this usually is a rather straightforward issue. Consider the aforementioned example with "classroom management" as the criterion and "less than 5% of classroom time should be spent by the teacher on classroom management activities" as the standard. This assumes, of course, that what constitutes classroom management is clearly defined (e.g., taking attendance, distributing and collecting materials, setting up equipment, disciplining students). If this is the case, then by recording the number of minutes during the observation period that are spent by the teacher in such activities and dividing this number by the total number of minutes observed, the percentage of classroom time spent on classroom management activities can be calculated. If this percentage is less than 5, we would say the standard has been met. Only a simple comparison of the data with the standard is needed to make the judgment.

When a criterion is ambiguous or a standard is qualitative, the problem of connecting the information to the criterion and the standard is much more difficult. Suppose, for example, classroom management activities are not explicitly defined. Does dealing with student misbehavior count as classroom management or not? Are managing student transitions in and out of the classroom part of a teacher's responsibility? Now, let us couple this ambiguity, with a qualitative standard (e.g., the teacher is expected to demonstrate

excellent classroom management skills). What does excellent mean? Do the data collected support the judgment of "excellent?"

Connecting data with criteria and standards, then, is easier when there are clear definitions of criteria and clear expectations in terms of standards. When qualitative standards are used, one way of increasing the clarity of expectations is the use of rubrics. In simplest terms, rubrics are verbal descriptions of gradations in performance. For example, when used in conjunction with classroom management, "excellent" may mean that the teacher is well prepared for class, maintains the flow of activity in the classroom, and nips student misbehavior in the bud. "Satisfactory," in contrast, may signify that the teacher has an identified weakness in one or more of these areas but is not seriously deficient in any of them. Last, "unsatisfactory" might mean that the teacher has multiple weaknesses or a serious deficiency in at least one area. When ratings lower than "excellent" are given, specific data must be provided to justify the lower ratings. An example of rubrics used in the Poway Professional Assistance Program is shown in Resource B.

Question 5: How Will the Results Be Reported?

Almost all teacher PAR programs require some type of written report. The programs differ in terms of

- The format of the report
- The preparer of the report
- The accessibility of the report
- The use of the report

The format of the report may range from a highly structured summary evaluation form to a fairly detailed written description. Combinations of formats can also be found (e.g., a highly structured form with room for written comments). The report may be prepared by the consulting teacher, the principal, or both. For example, the

consulting teacher may summarize the observation and the principal or supervisor may prepare the written comments.

The two main issues concerning the reporting of PAR results are accessibility and use. Are the results confidential? In some programs, they are (e.g., New York City), and in others, they are not (e.g., Toledo, Cincinnati). If principals and supervisors are not involved in the preparation of the report, do they have access to it? What about the district superintendent? The school board? Parents?

The issue of use is directly related to the purpose for which PAR programs exist. The use of the results can become a problem if (a) the purpose is not clear and explicit and (b) the results are used for purposes other than the stated purpose. We addressed the first problem in response to the first question in this chapter. With respect to the second problem, suffice it to say that data collected for one purpose (e.g., to assist in teacher improvement) should not be used for other purposes (e.g., to make employment decisions). If initial data are used for improvement purposes, then additional data are needed to make employment decisions (e.g., did the teacher fail to improve and, thus, must he or she be terminated?).

Regardless of who has access to the results or what uses are made of the results, one thing is certain: Both access and use must be addressed in writing and shared with all involved. In this regard, AFT/NEA (1998) have suggested that "It is essential that clear rules on allowable uses of documents, products and communications arising from a program be established and conveyed to all consulting and participating teachers" (p. 18).

More will be said about reporting PAR results in Chapter 5.

Question 6: What Forms of Assistance Will Be Made Available to Teachers?

The language of the legislation pertaining to the establishment of the California Peer Assistance and Review Program for Teachers is quite clear on this matter: "Sufficient staff development activities shall be provided to assist teachers to improve their teaching skills and knowledge" (Kairott, 1999, p. 2). Similarly, the AFT/NEA (1998) document calls for "rigorous and extensive assistance" over an

"appropriate period of time" (p. A6). However, when it comes to defining "sufficient staff development activities" or "rigorous and extensive assistance," the language becomes increasingly vague. In the 38-page booklet describing the Toledo Plan, for example, "A [consulting teacher] may use any of a number of methods to assist the intern in meeting the goals set. For example: suggestions about other teaching methods, arrangements for video taping, demonstration lessons, or observations of other teachers" (TPS, 1998, p. vii). The Poway Professional Assistance Program (Poway Unified School District and Poway Federation of Teachers [PUSD],1999) offers a similar potpourri of assistance possibilities: "routine peer coaching activities," "collegial meetings," and "district-wide opportunities for professional growth, providing a range of topics that are selected from a menu of offerings" (p. 7).

Without clear statements concerning the nature of the assistance to be provided, the role of the consulting teacher in PAR programs is particularly important. Consequently, the selection and training of consulting teachers is critical to program success. Not surprisingly, virtually every PAR program contains a list of qualifications of consulting teachers. They include the following:

- Extensive classroom experience
- Recognition as an outstanding classroom teacher
- Knowledge of the disciplines they teach
- Possession of a repertoire of teaching strategies
- Knowledge of, and successful experience with, adult learners
- Effective communication and interpersonal skills

Resource C contains a sample job description for the position of consulting teacher and a sample application for the position of consulting teacher.

Within these broad parameters, consulting teachers are generally given a great deal of discretion and flexibility in their work with participating teachers. As might be expected, then, there are substantial differences in the type of assistance provided, the formality of the assistance provided (e.g., a written plan vs. an oral agreement), and the length of time during which assistance is provided (e.g., from 2 weeks to 18 months).

Quite clearly, assistance is an integral part of a successful PAR program. At present, however, assistance is perhaps the least well-defined component of PAR programs. The approach seems to be to find the best consulting teachers available and let them work with their participating teachers to address the needs of the participating teachers as they (the consulting teachers) see fit. There is, however, recognition in some programs that some teachers need more assistance than others. For example, Minneapolis, Minnesota, has instituted a two-stage assistance process. A general professional support process (PSP) is followed by a period of intensive assistance. "Tenured teachers who are not successful during the PSP receive Intensive Assistance that typically lasts three to six weeks" (AFT/NEA, 1998, p. B7).

Question 7: How Will the Results Be Used to Make Employment Decisions?

With few exceptions, the results of PAR are used as part of the decision process concerning the future employment of participating teachers. For novice teachers, a positive review generally results in the conveyance of extended contracts or tenure. For veteran teachers, on the other hand, a negative review can result in an attempt to terminate employment.

When discussing the employment questions, a distinction must be made between recommendations and decisions. When employment decisions are at issue, consulting teachers offer recommendations concerning continued employment; they do not make decisions. Employment decisions are generally made by the district administration, the district's board of education, or some combination of the two.

The major issue pertaining to PAR programs, then, is the weight that the recommendation carries in the overall decision-making process. Like the type of assistance to be provided, the language concerning this issue is notably vague. Consider, for example, language found in the California legislation: "The results of an employee's participation in the Peer Assistance and Review Program for Teachers . . . shall be made available as part of the evaluation conducted pursuant to this section [that is, Section 44662]" (State of

California, 2000). What does "made available" mean? How shall the PAR results be considered? How much of a part in the overall decision should they play? Through how many organizational levels must the results of the peer review travel before they are considered in teacher employment decisions? Is a negative peer review sufficient for termination of a novice teacher? A veteran teacher? These are some of the sticky issues that must be addressed when dealing with the relationship between PAR programs and teacher employment decisions.

In this regard, it is noteworthy that the New York City Peer Intervention Program expressly forbids the use of the results of the program in making employment decisions. If the results are negative, teachers are advised to leave the profession and helped to find other employment. Quite obviously, teachers do not have to follow the advice.

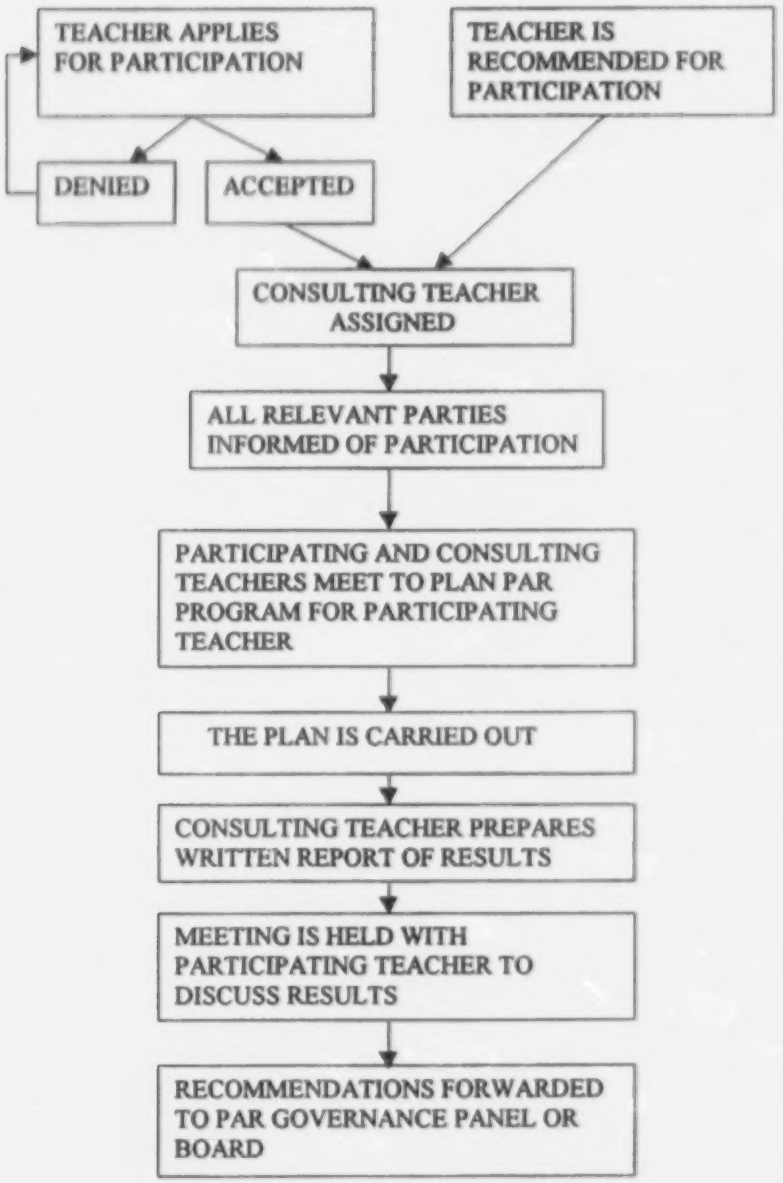
Question 8:
How Will the Program Operate?

From everything we have said so far, it should not come as a great surprise that PAR programs are quite complex from an operational point of view. This complexity is evident in most descriptions of PAR programs by virtue of the inclusion of flow charts and forms. Flow charts are needed because there is a sequence to the operation of PAR programs. Forms are needed because movement through the sequence quite often needs to be documented.

Figure 2.1 contains a skeletal flow chart for the operation of most PAR programs. Teachers either apply for participation in the program or they are recommended for participation. If they apply, they may or may not be accepted. The denial of an application is generally the result of either a lack of openings in the program at the present time or inappropriate reasons for wanting to be in the program. In the first case, the applicant is generally placed on a waiting list. In the second, the reasons for the denial are put in writing and sent to the applicant. The New York City Peer Intervention Program materials contain sample letters of both types (NYC, 1995).

Once a teacher is accepted for participation in the program, a consulting teacher is assigned. All relevant parties are then

FIGURE 2.1 Flow Chart of Initial Steps Involved in PAR Process


TEACHER APPLIES FOR PARTICIPATION
TEACHER IS RECOMMENDED FOR PARTICIPATION
DENIED
ACCEPTED
CONSULTING TEACHER ASSIGNED
ALL RELEVANT PARTIES INFORMED OF PARTICIPATION
PARTICIPATING AND CONSULTING TEACHERS MEET TO PLAN PAR PROGRAM FOR PARTICIPATING TEACHER
THE PLAN IS CARRIED OUT
CONSULTING TEACHER PREPARES WRITTEN REPORT OF RESULTS
MEETING IS HELD WITH PARTICIPATING TEACHER TO DISCUSS RESULTS
RECOMMENDATIONS FORWARDED TO PAR GOVERNANCE PANEL OR BOARD

informed of the teacher's participation in the program. The participating and consulting teachers meet to plan events and activities that will take place over the next several months. The plan is carried out, and the consulting teacher prepares a written report of the results. A meeting between the consulting and participating teacher is held to discuss the results, and recommendations based on the results are forwarded to the PAR governance panel or board.

If the results or recommendations are negative, another flow chart is called for. In Figure 2.2, the process used in Poway, California, is shown in flow chart form. Because negative results and recommendations have potentially serious consequences for the participating teacher, this flow chart is even more complex than the initial one. The flow chart shown in Figure 2.2 includes steps for "mandatory assistance," "plan for improvement," "evaluation by team," and a decision to continue or discontinue assistance. Ultimately, at the bottom of the flow chart, there is the move to dismiss the teacher.

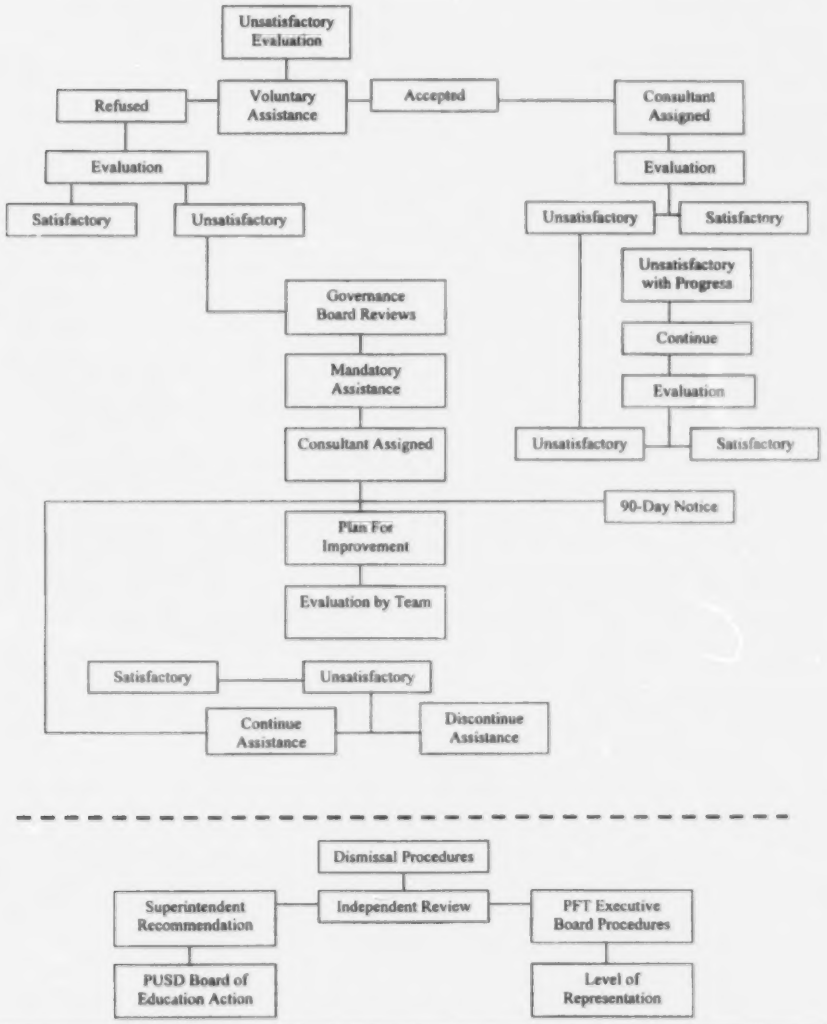
As mentioned earlier, progress through the steps included in these flow charts is generally monitored by completing forms and communicating via forms and form letters. There are application forms, participation recommendation forms, improvement plan forms, summary results forms, and so on. Examples of request for assistance forms and participation recommendation forms are included in Resource D. Sample improvement plan forms and summary results forms are included in Chapter 5.

The preparation of flow charts and forms is needed to ensure clear understanding and proper implementation of the PAR program. The need for both flow charts and forms stems from the complexity of these programs and the possible use of the results of these programs to make employment (i.e., termination) decisions.

Question 9: How Will the Program Be Governed?

Virtually all PAR programs have elaborate governance structures. The primary governance responsibilities are generally assigned to what are called governance panels or governance boards. No matter what they are called, these panels or boards have a variety of duties to perform. Among the most common duties are the following:

FIGURE 2.2. Flow Chart of Steps Involved in Permanent Teacher Intervention



SOURCE: Printed with permission from the Poway Professional Assistance Program.

- Determine the process for selecting participating teachers.
- Ensure fair treatment for all participating teachers.
- Select, oversee, train, and evaluate consulting teachers.

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- Review and accept or reject the reports and recommendations of consulting teachers.
- Consider and act on appeals of participating teachers regarding the consulting process.
- Make recommendations concerning teacher competence (and in some districts, continued employment) to the superintendent.
- Monitor and evaluate the program to determine its effectiveness and suggest improvements (adapted from AFT/NEA, 1998).

In general, these panels or boards include from 5 to 10 members, with an odd number of members seemingly preferable. Typically, teachers and administrators are equally represented. If there is an odd number of members, the teacher representation is generally slightly higher than the administrator representation. In the Columbus, Ohio, program, for example, there are seven members, with the Columbia Education Association appointing four members and the district superintendent appointing three members. Similarly, in Poway, California, there are five members, with "three union and two management representatives" (PUSD, 1999).

Question 10:
How Much Will the Program Cost?

All programs need money to support them. PAR programs certainly are no exception. Major budgetary items include the cost of consulting teachers (salaries plus fringe benefits), transportation, clerical assistance, supplies and materials, and photocopying. If governance board or panel members are given released time or compensation for their duties, this will be an additional cost factor. We include supplies and materials as a major budgetary item because of the numbers of forms typically involved (see Question 8). Similarly, photocopying is a major budgetary item because, as we have mentioned, PAR programs tend to require a great deal of documentation (again, see Question 8).

TABLE 2.2 Summary of Lieberman's Cost Analysis of the Toledo Plan, 1997-98

Category	*Specific Items*	*Dollar Amount*
Consulting teachers	20.5 consulting teachers	$1,277,068
	Average salary and benefits ($49,479 per teacher)	
	Retirement ($6,927 per teacher)	
	Insurance costs ($4,900 per teacher)	
	Worker's compensation ($900 per teacher)	
Mileage	Travel from school to school ($700 per teacher)	$14,350
Administrator costs	Activities related to governance board	$33,612
Clerical and office expenses	Secretarial time; supplies and materials	$16,388
Total		$1,341,418

Lieberman (1998) performed a fairly detailed cost analysis of the Toledo Plan for the 1997-1998 school year. Because of an unusually large number of retirements, the school system employed 260 new teachers that year. Twenty full-time and one part-time consulting teachers were appointed, producing a ratio of about 12.5 new teachers to 1 consulting teacher. The average salary of the full-time consulting teachers (including a $5,000 stipend) was $49,479.

A summary of the results of Lieberman's analysis is shown in Table 2.2. As shown in the table, the total cost of the Toledo Plan for 1997-1998 was just over $1.3 million, or about $5,160 per participating teacher. And, as might be expected, the cost of the consulting teachers represented approximately 95% of the total budget.

It is instructive to compare these cost estimates with the amount of money the California legislature appropriated in support of the PAR program for the 1999-2000 fiscal year. The total amount appropriated was $125,082,000 (State of California, 2000).[6] In light of the fact that there are 1,054 school districts in California, the state financial support for the PAR program per district would be $118,673. If we restrict ourselves to the 586 districts with student enrollments of 1,000 or more, the financial support per district would rise to $213,450. Based on Lieberman's estimates, the state support would account for about 8% to 16% of the money that school districts would need to fully implement a PAR program. This, of course, raises a major question: What is the source of the remainder of the needed funds?

Our point here is not that Toledo is typical, that modifications cannot be made to reduce the cost, or that California is underfunding the PAR program. Rather, the point is that PAR programs do not come cheap. It is extremely important that budgets are established for PAR programs and the necessary sources of funding to support the programs are identified before PAR programs are implemented. Underfunding PAR programs (or, in the vernacular, operating them on a shoestring) can have severely negative consequences.

In addition, it is important that we begin to seriously examine the cost-effectiveness of PAR programs. Unfortunately, that is not an easy task. Determining the typical costs of PAR programs is related to two rather perplexing questions: (a) What should be considered a cost? And (b) what should be considered a savings? For example, do we consider the removal of excellent teachers from the classroom for them to work with new teachers a cost? Or are savings realized as a result of an increased retention rate among new teachers in a district? Do we count as costs the full salary and benefits of the veteran teacher who is serving as a consulting teacher, or do we count the salary and benefits of the replacement teacher who is filling in for the veteran teacher while he or she is serving as a consulting teacher? The calculated costs for the salaries and benefits for the less experienced, lessor credentialed replacement teachers are likely to be considerably lower than the associated costs for the more experienced and more highly credentialed consulting teachers. This may be considered a savings. But if the students do not learn as well as they would have with the more experienced, more highly credentialed teacher, is this a cost?

What about the additional time that will accrue to building administrators when they are able to turn over a substantial portion of their evaluative responsibilities to consulting teachers? Is this a savings? Or is it a cost when some administrators must allocate a portion of their time to serve on PAR governing boards? When funds are shifted from existing programs, such as mentoring or peer coaching, to support PAR programs, is this a savings, a cost, or both? Calculating costs and savings is easy once we know exactly what they are.

Perhaps the only claims related to the costs that we dare make with any certainty at this juncture are that there are costs associated with PAR programs, these costs are substantial, and they are difficult to determine. When discussing the costs associated with PAR, Lieberman (1998) made what we believe to be perhaps the most relevant observation for those who are concerned about costs:

> As with any personnel process, there are costs to peer review. Our choice is not between a process that involves costs and one that is cost-free: It is how best to maximize sound personnel decisions at a reasonable cost. It is almost always possible to improve the quality of personnel decisions if costs are irrelevant, but that is rarely the case. (p. 55)

Concluding Comments

In this chapter, we have raised and discussed 10 questions that we believe must be addressed by those wishing to develop sound, defensible PAR programs. We have used examples from existing PAR programs to illustrate the options that educators have when answering these questions.

When existing PAR programs are examined in the context of these questions, it becomes apparent they have both strengths and weaknesses. The major strengths lie in the following areas:

- Statements of purpose and identification of program participants (Question 1)
- Program criteria and standards (Question 2)
- Reporting PAR results (Question 5)
- Linking PAR results with employment decisions (Question 7)

- Program operations (Question 8)
- Program governance (Question 9)

In contrast, the most glaring weaknesses in the existing programs tend to lie in the areas of

- Data collection (Question 3)
- Relating data to criteria and standards (Question 4)
- Specification and provision of assistance to participating teachers (Question 6)
- Preparing a budget to adequately support PAR programs (Question 10)

In the remaining chapters, we shall address many of these issues, offering suggestions when reasonable and appropriate. As with many other matters in education and in life, if PAR programs are worth doing, they are worth doing well.

Notes

1. With respect to this last purpose, PAR programs become either components of, or alternatives to, more traditional formal teacher evaluation programs. See, for example, PUSD (1999).

2. Some of the PAR programs that we reviewed included criteria that were rather unique to that program. The Columbus, Ohio, program, for example, includes "parent-community relations" and "overall value to the school program."

3. These examples are taken from the Toledo Plan.

4. Notice the implicit qualitative standards inherent in the first two goal statements: "reasonable rules" and "warm, friendly, democratic." The last two goal statements seem to call for dichotomous decisions (i.e., did or did not encourage; did or did not channel).

5. In fact, other than interviews with students, these are all data collection methods employed by the NBPTS.

6. This total amount is divided as follows: $41.8 million to provide the staff development activities and training necessary to implement the PAR program; $83.2 million for the California Mentor Teacher Program; and $82,000 for support services for the PAR program.

3

Criteria, Standards, and Data

Explicit and shared criteria, meaningful and defensible standards, and valid and reliable data are all crucial to the design and implementation of successful PAR programs. Unfortunately, the meaning and importance of these terms and phrases are not always crystal clear. As we mentioned in Chapter 2, for example, the term *criteria* has fallen out of favor, to be replaced by the term *standards*. The problem with this replacement is that the term *standards* was already in use. As a consequence, we now have two types of standards: standards that indicate what we believe to be important (previously known as criteria) and standards that indicate the level of attainment we believe must be achieved (previously known as standards).

Once we have explicit and shared criteria and meaningful and defensible standards, we then need to gather *data* to determine whether teachers achieve the level we expect of them (our standards) on what we believe to be important (our criteria). In light of this discussion, then, the purposes of this chapter are to

- Clarify the meaning of these three key concepts
- Illustrate each of these concepts as they appear in current PAR programs
- Discuss their importance in the development of PAR programs

Definition of Key Concepts

We are going to use an inductive approach to defining criteria, standards, and data. That is, we will use examples taken from three current PAR programs to help the reader gain an understanding of these key concepts.

> ***Example 1:*** The teacher creates learning opportunities for all students.

Our first example is taken from the Poway Unified School District. In our terminology, the lead statement is a criterion. A criterion is a statement of what we believe is *important* for teachers to know or be able to do (or both). The statement in our first example asserts that teachers should be able to create learning opportunities for all students. By including this as a criterion, the teachers and administrators in Poway are stating quite clearly that creating learning opportunities for all students is something they value.

As this example indicates, many criteria are quite broad. When this is the case, it is common practice to provide additional, generally more concrete, criteria to clarify the meaning of each criterion. Here are four more specific criteria related to the more general criterion, creating learning opportunities for all students, in the Poway system:

- Value and respect all students as learners.
- Ensure all students equitable access to the core curriculum.
- Accommodate the unique language, learning, and cultural needs of students.
- Promote family participation in student learning.

In addition to enhancing the meaning of the original criterion, these additional criteria serve a second function as well. They provide a bridge between the criterion and the needed data. That is, they suggest the kind(s) of data that might be useful in determining whether the criterion has been achieved. When used in this way, these more specific criteria are often called *indicators*. Because of the

possible confusion of general criteria and specific criteria, we likewise shall adopt the term *indicators* for the more specific criteria.

This example leads nicely to our second issue. How do we know that the criterion has been achieved? That is, continuing with our example, how do we know that the teacher creates learning opportunities for all students? The answer to this question requires that data are gathered and a decision is made based on the data (e.g., "yes, he or she does" or "no, he or she doesn't").[1]

How should we gather the data that we need to make this determination? We could query students that the teacher is teaching or has taught. We could ask the teacher to reflect on past practices. We could ask the teacher to reflect on practices used by other teachers. We could observe teachers teaching, either live or via videotape. In the case of the Poway system, several options were available—self-reflection, observation, documentation, and conferences.

Regardless of the source of data chosen, we are faced with a second question. How do we record the data? We could use videotapes to record the data in its most complete form. By complete here, we mean that nothing has been eliminated. If we desire, we can watch and listen to the videotape over and over again, attending to and ignoring different things each time. If we conduct observations of teachers, we could tabulate frequency counts of certain relevant behaviors or activities (e.g., the number of disrespectful comments a teacher makes to her students; the number of times the teacher accommodated the unique language, learning, and cultural needs of students). We also could write narrative descriptions or make rather extensive notes (generally referred to as field notes).

In the Poway system, the data from observations are recorded in narrative form. That is, for example, a consulting teacher observing in a teacher's classroom writes a description of what is seen and heard (an example is included in Table 5.3 in Chapter 5). Based on a series of observations, conferences, documents, and so on, the consulting teacher eventually uses the data to rate the teacher's performance on all indicators, using series of rubrics.

In simplest terms, a rubric is a graded scale of performance. Consider this example of a rubric related to "accommodates the unique language, learning, and cultural needs of students," one of the four indicators associated with the criterion, "creates learning opportunities for all students."

- May have knowledge of diverse student learning styles and developmental needs but inconsistently applies that knowledge when planning curriculum and presenting lessons
- Attempts to integrate diverse student learning styles, developmental needs, and cultural backgrounds when planning curriculum and presenting lessons
- Often integrates diverse learning styles, developmental needs, and cultural backgrounds when planning curriculum and presenting lessons
- Routinely integrates diverse student learning styles, developmental needs, and cultural backgrounds when planning curriculum and presenting lessons

When all the verbiage is stripped away, the gradations on the scale are (1) inconsistently performs, (2) attempts to perform, (3) often performs, and (4) routinely performs.

Now that we have our criterion, our indicators (because of the generality of our criterion), our sources of data, our records of the data from the various sources, and the rating of teacher performance using scoring rubrics, we turn our attention to the issue of standards. Where along the graded scale do we establish the point that differentiates those who are successful from those who are not? In other words, which of the four levels of performance (i.e., inconsistently performs, attempts to perform, often performs, and routinely performs) is acceptable? In the Poway system, the standard is set between "inconsistently performs" (the lowest gradation) and "attempts to perform" (the next to the lowest gradation). That is, teachers who "attempt to perform," "often perform," or "routinely perform," are said to meet the standard on that indicator.

It is important to point out that, first, a separate standard is set for each indicator and, second, four indicators are associated with the criterion. To complicate matters further, there are multiple criteria (n = 18) included in the system, with the criteria organized into five domains. The domains themselves can be thought of as very general criteria (i.e., planning and designing instruction, instruction, classroom management, assessment, and professional responsibilities).

This structure raises two additional questions concerning standards. First, for how many indicators must the standard be met

before we say the criterion is achieved (e.g., 1, 2, 3, or 4)? Second, how many criteria must be achieved before we say the teacher's performance suggests that he or she is a "good teacher?" We have here, then, a case of standards (for judging performance relative to the indicators) embedded within standards (for judging the indicators relative to the criteria) embedded within standards (for judging the criteria relative to overall teacher quality). Suffice it to say that this is a very complex structure.

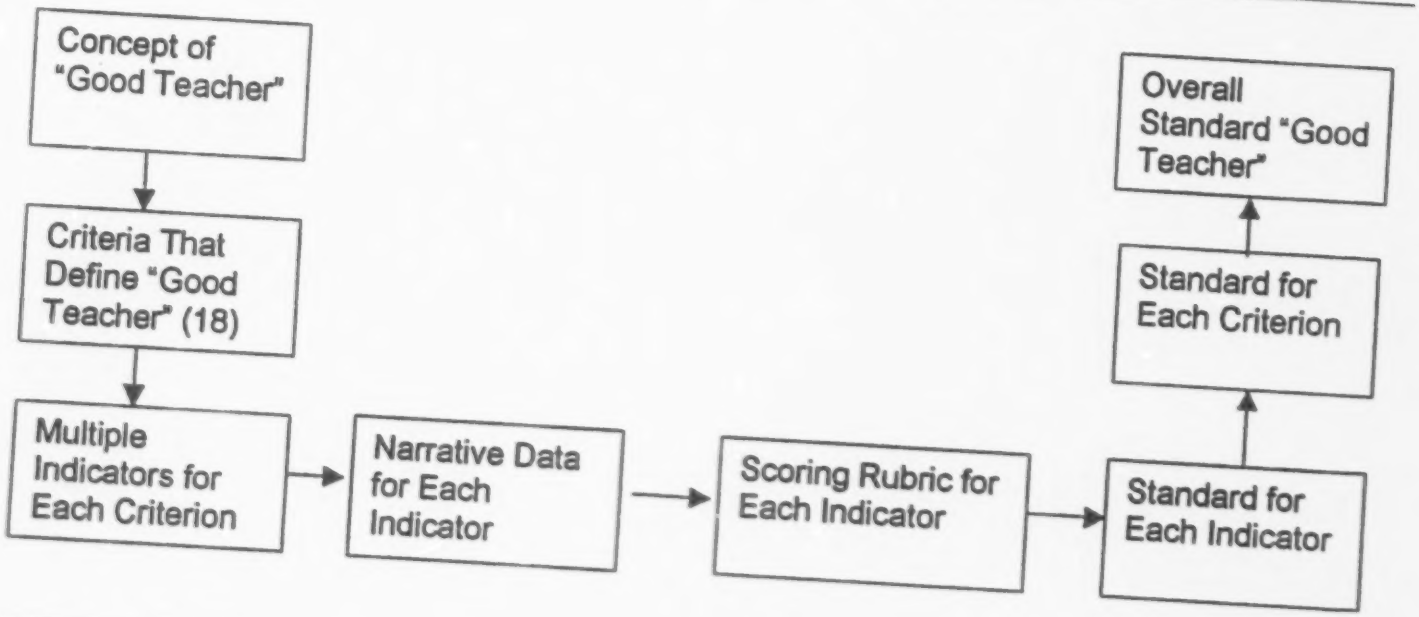
In the Poway system, the standards for the indicators were established in advance and made public (i.e., explicit). Indicators for which standards have been met are considered "strengths;" those for which standards are not met are considered areas "in need of improvement." The other two levels of standards (those with respect to the criteria and those related to overall teacher quality) are implicit, with judgments as to whether they have been met made by an individual (e.g., the school principal) or a group (e.g., the governance board) based on a consideration of all available data.

The Poway Professional Assistance Program can be summarized visually, as shown in Figure 3.1. As shown in the figure, all PAR programs begin by defining the concept of "good teacher." This is what the set of criteria in the Poway system really represents. The 18 criteria provide a shared, explicit definition of "good teacher" for all teachers and administrators in the district. Each criterion is associated with from two to six indicators. Narrative data are recorded for each indicator and each indicator is associated with a rubric. For each rubric, an explicit standard is set (the equivalent of 2– on a 4-point scale). Last, implicit standards are used to determine whether a particular teacher has achieved each criterion and, ultimately, the overall standard pertaining to "good teacher."

> ***Example 2:*** Accomplished teachers draw on their knowledge of subject matter and curriculum to make sound decisions about what is important for students to learn within and across the subject areas that comprise the middle childhood curriculum.

The second example is taken from NBPTS. Although the NBPTS assessment process is not a PAR program (rather, it is a national teacher certification program), it nonetheless relies extensively on peer input and review. The NBPTS criteria (which they call standards) are developed by committees composed largely of teachers.

FIGURE 3.1. Summary of the Relationship of Criteria, Standards, and Data in the Poway Professional Assistance


Concept of "Good Teacher"
Criteria That Define "Good Teacher" (18)
Multiple Indicators for Each Criterion
Narrative Data for Each Indicator
Scoring Rubric for Each Indicator
Standard for Each Indicator
Standard for Each Criterion
Overall Standard "Good Teacher"

SOURCE: Printed with permission from the Poway Professional Assistance Program.

The data, provided by teacher applicants for NBPTS certification, are reviewed by committees of teachers. Last, the majority of the governing board members are teachers. We decided to include this example to show how similar the structure of all teacher peer review programs are in terms of the relationship of criteria, data, and standards.

Once again, the statement in Example 2 is a criterion (although NBPTS refers to it as a standard). That is, some group of teachers, administrators, and policy makers deemed it important that "accomplished teachers" draw on their knowledge of subject matter and curriculum to make sound decisions about what is important for students to learn within and across the subject areas that comprise the middle childhood curriculum. The emphasis on the middle childhood curriculum is important because this is one of 12 criteria related to national certification of "middle childhood/generalists." (See Resource E for a complete listing of the criteria.) Unlike the Poway system, there are no indicators.

As mentioned earlier, in the NBPTS system, the data are provided by the teachers who apply for certification. These teachers prepare a portfolio of their teaching practices during the course of a school year and participate in a 1-day assessment center activity "documenting their content and content pedagogical knowledge" (NBPTS, 2000). Teachers are given very clear guidelines for the preparation of their portfolios and quite specific information about the assessment center exercises.

The material included in the portfolio and the teacher's performance on the assessment center exercises (i.e., the data) are examined by a panel of trained teachers. They record their review using scoring rubrics. There are 10 scoring rubrics, one for each of the 6 sections of the portfolio and one for each of the 4 assessment center exercises. There is, however, a rather direct (though obviously not complete) linkage between the portfolio sections and assessment exercises on the one hand and the criteria on the other. For example, the data pertaining to the criterion with which we began is contained in the portfolio section titled "Planning." Specifically, teachers are asked to submit a written commentary and supporting artifacts that demonstrate their ability to plan and implement instruction based on their knowledge and understanding of the curriculum, subject matter, and instructional planning.

Quantitatively speaking, the scoring rubric forms a four-point scale, with three points being the preset standard. For a score of three or higher to be assigned, there must be "clear, consistent, and convincing evidence" that the teacher is, in fact, an accomplished teacher, thereby worthy of national board certification. Once scores have been assigned, the pattern of scores for each teacher across all rubrics is reviewed by the entire panel. A consensual judgment is made concerning whether this pattern meets some implicit standard of "accomplished teacher."

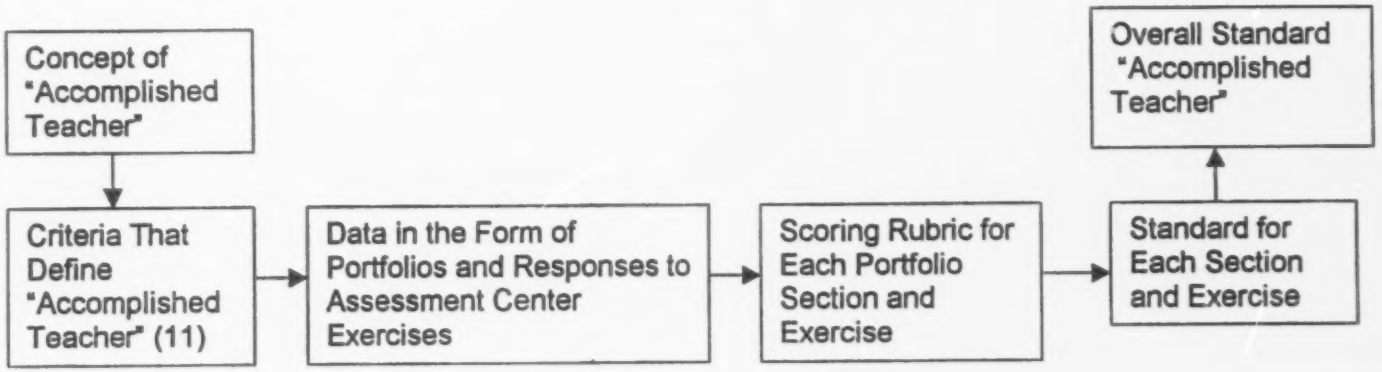
The NBPTS system can be summarized visually, as shown in Figure 3.2. The parallels with the Poway system should be quite obvious, although there are a few important differences. Let us begin with the similarities:

- Both begin with a set of criteria that define "good" or "accomplished" teachers and end with some overall qualitative judgment of individual teachers relative to that definition.
- Both use multiple sources of data (e.g., observation, self-reflection, portfolios, assessment center exercises).
- Both use scoring rubrics as a means of evaluating the data that is collected or made available.
- Both include at least two types of standards: (a) standards pertaining to each indicator (Poway) or segment of data (NBPTS) and (b) an overall standard used to determine whether the teacher is a sufficiently "good" or "accomplished" teacher.

Now, let us consider the major differences:

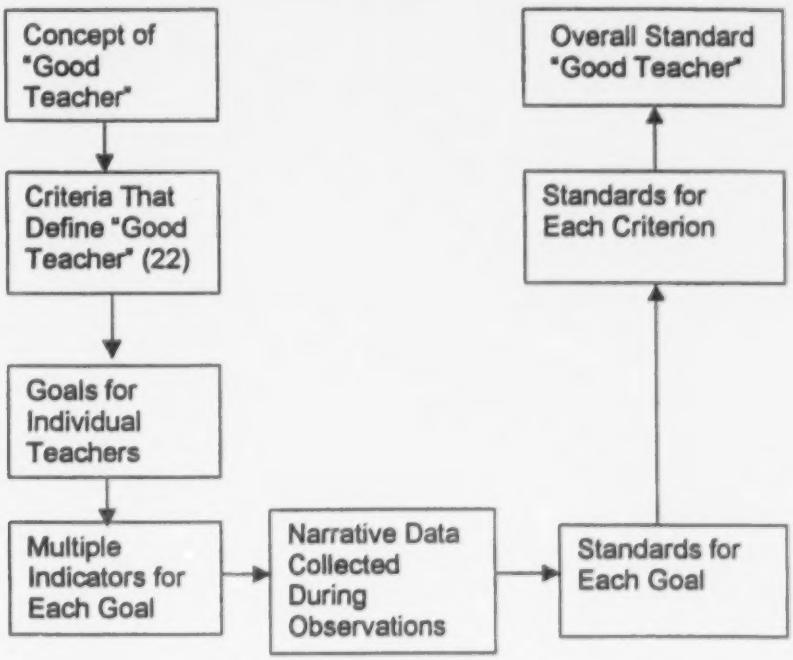
- The Poway system includes indicators to further define each criterion; NBPTS does not.
- The Poway system includes fairly generic sources of data; NBPTS's sources of data are far more specific (and highly specified).
- In the Poway system, the scoring rubrics are linked directly to the criteria; in the NBPTS system, the scoring rubrics are linked directly to the data (and indirectly to the criteria).

FIGURE 3.2. Summary of the Relationship of Criteria, Standards, and Data for NBPTS System


Concept of "Accomplished Teacher"
Criteria That Define "Accomplished Teacher" (11)
Data in the Form of Portfolios and Responses to Assessment Center Exercises
Scoring Rubric for Each Portfolio Section and Exercise
Standard for Each Section and Exercise
Overall Standard "Accomplished Teacher"

SOURCE: NBPTS (2000).

FIGURE 3.3. Summary of the Relationship of Criteria, Data, and Standards for the Toledo Plan


Concept of "Good Teacher"
Criteria That Define "Good Teacher" (22)
Goals for Individual Teachers
Multiple Indicators for Each Goal
Narrative Data Collected During Observations
Standards for Each Goal
Standards for Each Criterion
Overall Standard "Good Teacher"

SOURCE: TPS (1998).

Example 3: The teacher intends to improve her skills in classroom questioning techniques.

Our last example, shown in Figure 3.3, is adapted from the Toledo Plan (TPS, 1998). One component of the plan is goal setting. Specifically,

> The evaluation process is one of continuous mutual goal-setting based on detailed observations and follow-up conferences where the intern [i.e., first-year teacher] and consultant can analyze and set practical goals for improvement based on the evaluation criteria detailed on the Teacher Summary Evaluation Report. (p. vii)

In this situation, the goals determine the criteria that will be emphasized during a particular time frame.

As in the case of the Poway system, several indicators are associated with the sample criterion. For instance, good questions

- Are closely related to pupils' level of comprehension and appropriate to the purpose, subject area, and class
- Make pupils think reflectively and deeply
- Motivate pupils to read, to find out, and to create
- Help pupils clarify meanings and check understandings
- Help pupils pull a number of ideas together

The primary source of data is classroom observation. Each intern must be observed a minimum of three times during the year, with each observation consisting of a minimum of 20 uninterrupted minutes. The records of the observation are in the form of notes, made either in the classroom or immediately upon leaving "so that suggestions will be based upon fact" (TPS, 1998, p. 8).

Based on these notes, the consulting teacher places a check mark in one of three evaluative categories for each criterion. The categories are the following:

- *Satisfactory* (which indicates the teacher is showing the degree of professional qualities and growth to be expected and desired of a beginning teacher)
- *Unsatisfactory* (which indicates the teacher's weaknesses or deficiencies are of such a serious nature as to indicate that the teacher will not be recommended for reappointment unless substantial improvement is shown)
- *Outstanding* (which suggests that instances have been observed where unusual skills, abilities, and attitudes are in evidence and where the teacher's accomplishments are in excess of the basic requirements for a satisfactory rating)

Note: *Outstanding* is not applicable for all criteria.

Embedded in the parentheses are written descriptions of the standards that are to be used by the consulting teacher in deciding

on the proper rating category. If either an *unsatisfactory* or *outstanding* rating is given, the consulting teacher must prepare a written statement of justification. Last, twice a year, the consulting teacher must provide an overall evaluation of *outstanding*, *satisfactory*, and *unsatisfactory* ratings based on the entire set of data collected up to that time.

The Toledo Plan can be summarized visually, as shown in Figure 3.3. Once again, comparisons with the Poway and the NBPTS systems can be made quite easily. Once again, let us begin with the similarities:

- All three systems begin with a set of criteria that define "good" or "accomplished" teachers and end with some overall qualitative judgment of individual teachers relative to that definition.
- All include at least two types of standards: standards pertaining to each criterion (Toledo), each indicator (Poway), or each segment of data (NBPTS) and an overall standard used to determine whether the teacher is a sufficiently "good" or "accomplished."

Now, let us consider the major differences:

- The Toledo Plan includes a goal-setting element to determine priorities among the criteria. (Goal setting is part of the Poway program, beginning with second-year teachers.)
- Like the Poway system, the Toledo Plan includes indicators to further define each criterion. However, unlike the Poway system, the indicators in the Toledo Plan are for definitional purposes only. Separate data are not gathered for each indicator.
- Unlike the Poway and NBPTS systems, which rely on multiple sources of data, the Toledo Plan relies on a single source: classroom observations.
- Rather than having a single standard for each criterion (e.g., meets, does not meet), the Toledo Plan has two standards for each criterion. The first separates *satisfactory* from *unsatisfactory*. The second separates *satisfactory* from *outstanding*.

TABLE 3.1 Issues Concerning Criteria, Evidence, and Standards

1. Where do the criteria come from and how many should there be?
2. Do we need indicators? If we have them, what do we do with them?
3. What is the proper relationship between criteria and goals?
4. What are the preferred sources of data?
5. How should data be recorded?
6. Should we have explicit standards, implicit standards, or both? If we have explicit standards, how do we establish them?
7. How should standards be used in decision making?

Issues to Be Resolved

Our three examples are intended to serve two purposes. The first, as mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, is to help the reader understand the meaning of *criteria, data,* and *standards.* The second purpose comes from the similarities and differences in the way the designers of the three programs dealt with some key issues. The purpose of this section is to examine seven of these issues (see Table 3.1).

Source and Number of Criteria

The first issue concerns the source and number of criteria. As stated in Table 3.1, from where do the criteria come, and how many should there be? The answer to the first part of the question is easy. They come from the minds of people. Generally, a group of people sit around and talk about good teachers or accomplished teachers. They ask questions such as "What makes good teachers, good teachers?" "What should accomplished teachers need to know and be able to do?" During the talk, they rely on personal experience, what

they have read, perhaps outside experts, and similar sources. Eventually, someone starts a list and entries are added, deleted, and combined until some degree of consensus is achieved.

Table 3.2 summarizes the results of such efforts in Poway, Toledo, and Washington, DC (home of NBPTS). There is reasonable overlap in Table 3.2, and this overlap is a good place to start. Good or accomplished teachers appear to need

- Knowledge of students, the way students learn, and how they are different (furthermore, they are expected to act on this knowledge so that learning opportunities are created for all students)
- Knowledge of subject matter content and the curriculum in which it is embedded (once again, this knowledge is to be used to select appropriate lesson objectives and create meaningful applications of knowledge)
- The ability to create, maintain, and manage a warm, yet businesslike, classroom learning environment that promotes appropriate behavior, academic learning, and self-esteem
- Knowledge of appropriate learning materials and instructional resources and skill in using these materials and resources appropriately
- Skill in assessment and evaluation, including the use of assessment results to improve student learning and the ability to communicate the results to students and their parents
- A willingness to share responsibility for the smooth operation of the school and accept responsibility for contributing to the betterment of the profession

Within the context of these three systems, these six criteria define the essence of good or accomplished teachers.

Now that we have our six criteria, we can return to the second part of the question. How many criteria should there be? In our examples, the number of criteria ranged from 11 (NBPTS) to 23 (Toledo). Although there is no magic number, we lean more toward 11 than to 23. Staying with a smaller number is particularly important if

(text continues on page 66)

TABLE 3.2 Comparability of Three Sets of Criteria

Toledo (Ohio)	*Poway (California)*	*NBPTS (see Resource E)*
Skill in planning	Designs long-range plans to accomplish yearly goals	
	Selects appropriate lesson objectives	
	Designs lessons that include elements for essential learning	
	Establishes clear academic standards	
		Meaningful applications of knowledge
Skill in assessment and evaluation	Monitors student learning	Assessment
Skill in making assignments		
Skill in developing good work-study habits		
Resourceful use of instructional materials	Uses appropriate learning materials	Instructional resources
Skill in using motivating techniques		
Skill in questioning techniques	Delivers effective instruction	

(continued)

TABLE 3.2 Continued

Toledo (Ohio)	*Poway (California)*	*NBPTS (see Resource E)*
Ability to recognize and provide for individual differences	Delivers effective instruction; uses a variety of instructional strategies to meet the needs of students; creates learning opportunities for all students	Knowledge of students; respect for diversity; multiple paths to knowledge
Oral and written communication skills	Delivers effective instruction; uses assessment results to give students and/or parents timely, accurate, and constructive feedback	
Adequate speech, articulation, and voice quality	Delivers effective instruction	
Effective classroom facilitation and control	Maintains a positive learning environment, which promotes appropriate behavior and self-esteem	Learning environment
Effective interaction with pupils		
Efficient classroom routines		
	Organizes physical space	
	Effectively manages instruction time	
Confidence/stability		

Reasonableness, fairness, and impartiality in dealing with students		
Knowledge of subject; academic preparation	Demonstrates subject matter competence	Knowledge of content and curriculum
Genuine interest in teaching		
Adequate personal appearance		
Skill in adapting to change	Adjusts teaching and learning based on assessment	
	Grows and develops professionally	Reflection
Adherence to accepted policies and procedures of Toledo Public Schools	Complies with established rules, regulations, policies, and laws	
Acceptance of responsibility both inside and outside the classroom	Shares the responsibility for the smooth operation of the school	Contributions to the profession
Cooperative approach toward parents and school personnel		Family involvement
Punctuality and regularity in attendance		

indicators are written for each criterion and used as part of the evaluation process. Poway's 18 criteria, for example, are associated with a total of 73 indicators, with virtually every indicator associated with a scoring rubric. For each teacher participating in the PAR program, then, this system produces 73 separate pieces of information that must be sifted through 73 standards and that ultimately must be combined into a single judgment of overall teacher quality. This is not an easy task.

The Place and Role of Indicators

Let us make clear from the outset: indicators are useful if used well. As we mentioned earlier in this chapter, indicators serve two purposes. First, they enhance the meaning of the criteria. Second, they can serve as bridges between the criteria and the data. Let us consider each of these in turn.

Indicators as "Meaning Enhancers"

Because we cannot include every possible criterion in our system, we must select some over others. The basis for this selection should be the importance or value we attach to the criterion. Simply stated, some criteria are just more important than others. Because we can only select a few (perhaps a dozen or so), the criteria we select are often fairly general. Consider, for example, the six criteria we generated in the previous section (e.g., knowledge of instructional resources and materials, skills in assessment and evaluation).

In PAR programs, indicators serve the same function as examples do in other fields. Namely, they enhance understanding. If we want to understand what a sonnet is, we certainly can look up the definition in the dictionary. Here's what we might find:

> a poem normally of fourteen lines in any of several fixed verse and rhyme schemes, typically in rhymed iambic pentameter; sonnets characteristically express a single theme or idea.

Although we can memorize this definition, having memorized it does not guarantee we understand what a sonnet is or that we would recognize one if we saw or heard it. To understand "sonnet"

as a concept, we would likely need to see some examples. Furthermore, because rhyme schemes are involved in the definition, we might want to hear some of the examples read out loud. Eventually, armed with enough examples, we come to understand the meaning of "sonnet." So it is with criteria and indicators.

Indicators as Linkages Between Criteria and Data

In the Poway and Toledo systems, we saw two quite different uses of indicators. In the Poway system, as mentioned earlier, there is one scoring rubric for each indicator. The number of scoring rubrics for each criterion depends on the number of indicators associated with that criterion. In the Toledo Plan, in contrast, there is one rating given for each criterion. The indicators are intended to focus the observer's attention on teacher behaviors and classroom activities related to each criterion. Rather than "scoring" each indicator, the observer in the Toledo Plan makes notes related to the indicators and, based on those notes, assigns a single rating for each criterion (i.e., *outstanding*, *satisfactory*, or *unsatisfactory*).

For two reasons, we prefer the approach used in the Toledo Plan. First, it is more consistent with our concept of indicators as examples. Indicators should be considered things to look for, rather than things that must be seen or heard. Based on our collective experience, it is unlikely that every example will be seen during every observation. Second, it removes a layer of standards from the decision-making process. Virtually all teacher PAR programs have two layers of standards: one for the criteria and one for the overall judgment of teacher quality. Assigning scores or ratings to the indicators adds a third layer of standards. The more layers, the more complex the decision-making process.

Criteria and Goals

What is the proper relationship between criteria and goals? As mentioned earlier, the purpose of criteria in PAR programs is to define for all what is meant by a "good teacher." As such, criteria provide a shared vision as well as a common vocabulary for talking about good teachers. In addition, the criteria, as a set, define the parameters within which the PAR program operates. In the Toledo

Plan, for example, individual teacher goals are set within these parameters.

An alternative to operating within a common set of criteria is to operate a completely individualized PAR program. An example is the New York City Peer Intervention Program (PIP). In this program, which is completely voluntary, each participating teacher determines the area or areas in which assistance is needed and establishes goals within this area or these areas. The goals are, in essence, criteria free.

The choice, then, seems to be criteria-embedded goals versus criteria-free goals. What is the better alternative? We prefer the former, while at the same time, recognizing the value of the latter under certain circumstances. We believe that a primary value of PAR programs is to acculturate new teachers to the profession and, more specifically, to a district or school. In this regard, the criteria define for these teachers what they are expected to know, do, and, ultimately, become. In addition, the much-needed interpersonal connection between new teachers and consulting teachers is more easily established when both are "singing from the same hymnal."

Under what circumstances are criteria-free goals advisable? An experienced teacher may be having difficulty in a specific area that lies outside the stated criteria. After all, as we mentioned earlier, the stated criteria are only a subset of all the criteria that could be included in a PAR program. Even in this case, however, some method must be in place for deciding whether criteria-free goals fall within the purview of PAR programs. (See our earlier discussion on this matter in Chapter 2.)

Preferred Sources of Data

Simply stated, we prefer multiple data sources. Having said this, we do not believe that all data sources have to be used with all criteria. Rather, the question should be, "What source is likely to provide the best data for this criterion?" If, for example, a criterion emphasizes teacher knowledge (e.g., knowledge of students, knowledge of subject matter content and curriculum, knowledge of appropriate learning materials), then what source of data would be most appropriate? Should we administer a test or questionnaire? Should we examine unit and lesson plans? Can we make proper inferences

about teacher knowledge from observing teachers in classrooms? How do we get the data we need?

Consider a second example, one that makes the point even more directly. Both the Toledo Plan and the NBPTS system include a criterion dealing with parents and the family. In the NBPTS (2000) system, the criterion is stated as follows: "Accomplished teachers work to create positive relationships with families as they participate in the education of their children." Teachers are asked to submit "descriptions and documentation of those activities and accomplishments that illustrate their commitment to their students' families and communities." Is it really possible to gather valid and reliable data on this criterion without going directly to parents and other family members?

The concern here is the proper match between the criteria and the sources of data. This leads to a brief discussion of why we prefer multiple sources. Multiple sources permit multiple perspectives to be considered. A great many criteria, largely because of their generality and vagueness, are open to multiple interpretations. Single sources of data permit only single interpretations. In these cases, perception becomes reality (whether it, in fact, is). Multiple sources of data are needed whenever multiple interpretations are possible. From a technical point of view, multiple interpretations enhance the validity of the data collected.

Recording the Data

Regardless of the source of data, the data must be recorded somehow. With some sources of data, this is not a problem. For example, the data in a teacher portfolio are "recorded data." That is to say, the portfolio contains the data (e.g., unit or lesson plans, descriptions of assessment practices) on which decisions and judgments are to be made. The judgments can be made on scoring rubrics, rating scales, or in some other form. It is important to remember that scoring rubrics and rating scales record the judgments, not the data.

This distinction between recording the data and recording the judgments based on the data is quite clear in both the Toledo Plan and the NBPTS system. In the Toledo Plan, for example, the data from the observations are in the form of notes made by the observer.

The notes serve as records of the data. Based on these data, the observer makes a judgment with respect to each criterion. Is this teacher's performance, with respect to this criteria, satisfactory, unsatisfactory, or outstanding? The observer records this judgment as well.

Failure to make this critical distinction is especially problematic when classroom observations are the primary or sole source of data. A lack of data is problematic for two reasons. First, a teacher may challenge a particular score on a particular rubric or a particular rating category to which he or she was assigned. "Why did I receive a score of 2 on this rubric? Why was I judged unsatisfactory on this criterion? What did I do or what didn't I do to warrant such a judgment?" Documented data would be needed to answer these questions. Second, attempting to assist teachers without specific data is quite difficult. A teacher who is told that he or she "provides limited feedback or feedback that does not contribute to student learning" is likely to respond with questions such as, "Can you be more specific? Can you give me an example?"

Having records of data, then, is central to making PAR "work." In addition, records of data must be kept separate from records of judgments.

Explicit Versus Implicit Standards

In the three examples we have included in this chapter, explicit standards were used for specific criteria (or indicators), whereas implicit standards were used for making overall judgments of teacher quality. In general, we endorse this approach.

Explicit standards are needed for criteria because individual criteria are the basis for the determination of strengths and weaknesses (or areas in need of improvement). To justify our saying that something is a weakness, we need to have (a) clear records of data supporting the weakness (as mentioned earlier) and (b) explicit standards that are used to differentiate weaknesses from strengths. If either is missing, attempts to assist teachers may be met with resistance and, hence, be futile.

When it comes to an overall judgment concerning a teacher (e.g., should this teacher be reemployed? Should this teacher be given NBPTS certification?), however, the use of implicit standards is preferable. Our reasoning behind this statement becomes evident when

we consider the alternative: namely, setting an overall explicit standard based on the entire set of explicit standards established for the entire set of criteria.

To set an overall explicit standard requires answering a single question: "On how many (or what percentage) of the criteria must a teacher meet the standard before we say he or she has met the overall standard?" Is it 70%, 80%, or 90%? To answer this question, we must consider all of the criteria to be equally important and equally weighted (in the sense that meeting the standard on one criterion is the same as meeting the standard on any other criterion). These presumptions are often not reasonable.

What implicit standards allow you to do is look at the forest rather than the trees. That is, you are able to examine the entire pattern of available data as well as the various judgments made based on specific, explicit standards. In this way, you can allow for compensation across the criteria. For example, being able to do very well on one criterion may compensate for being slightly below the standard on another criterion.

Both explicit and implicit standards have problems associated with them. Setting performance standards requires answering the question, "How much is enough?" With explicit standards, the question becomes, "How far along a four-point scoring rubric must teachers be before their performance is judged adequate or satisfactory?" This is quite clearly a judgment call. As in the case of all judgments, the standard can be set too high, too low, or "just right." In the Poway system, the answer is "two or more." That is, only if a teacher is assigned one point on the scale is the performance judged inadequate. Is this a sufficiently stringent standard?

With respect to implicit standards, the question is more complicated because a pattern of data, rather than a linear combination, is being considered. "What patterns do I consider to be associated with a good teacher?" To address this question, it would be possible to create a series of templates corresponding with good teachers and then simply overlay those templates with the data pertaining to each teacher being evaluated. This, however, is rarely done. Rather, each person reviewing the data makes a determination for himself or herself and disagreements are discussed in committee. Generally, the disagreements are resolved and a consensus is formed. Based on this consensus, the teacher either met the implicit standard or did not.

It is important to note that both explicit and implicit standards require groups of educators (generally some combination of teachers and administrators) to be involved. The primary difference is *when* they are involved. With explicit standards, they are brought into the discussion early on, and the decisions they make apply to all teachers who follow. With implicit standards, they are brought into the discussion after all the data (both data and standards-based judgments) are available and must meet on a case-by-case basis.

Standards and Decision Making

This leads nicely to our final issue. What is the relationship between standards and decision making? We would argue that it is as important to know *how* the standards were established and *how* the decisions were made as it is to know *what* the standards are (if they are, in fact, explicit) and *what* the decision was.

With respect to explicit standards, the following questions concerning the process of standard setting should be addressed:

- Who was involved in the process?
- What method of standard setting was used?
- How were disagreements among the group resolved?

With respect to implicit standards, the following questions should be addressed:

- Who was involved in the process?
- What was the process?
- How were decisions made concerning whether or not the standard was achieved?

If there is one aspect of PAR programs that is cloaked in secrecy, it has to do with the actual process used to make the ultimate decision (e.g., intervention or not, "counseling out" or not, continued employment or not). This cloak needs to be lifted, at least to a reasonable degree.

A Closing Comment

At the end of Chapter 2, we reviewed existing PAR programs in terms of the 10 questions we used to organize the chapter. Based on our review, we suggested that the programs were the weakest in terms of data collection and relating the data to criteria and standards. In this chapter, we have provided what we believe to be a useful set of suggestions pertaining to these issues. Each of these issues, if not addressed properly, has the potential of undermining PAR programs. For example, PAR programs with far too many criteria and indicators can easily collapse under their own weight. Even if our suggestions are not adopted, we would definitely encourage those developing PAR programs to find some way of dealing with each of the issues raised in this chapter.

Note

1. Notice that the decision is dichotomous—that is, yes or no. There are other ways of examining the data relative to the criteria. For example, how often does the teacher create learning opportunities for all students? Or how well does the teacher create learning opportunities for all students? When performance standards are introduced into the equation, however, teachers either meet the standards or they do not.

4

Defining the Roles, Relationships, and Responsibilities of Key Players

Most of us have heard the expression at one time or another, "You can't tell the players without a program." If that is indeed the case, this chapter is intended to serve as a program for our readers. In the pages to follow, we will not only attempt to identify the key players but to define the roles that they play in the PAR process and to describe the relationships that must be formed between and among the key players to successfully implement a PAR program. As we did in the previous chapter, we draw freely from the literature pertaining to existing PAR programs. We do this to describe the key elements of several models that are currently functioning around the country and to illustrate the range of possibilities that exists for program design and implementation in real-life contexts.

The aforementioned Poway Professional Assistance Program (PPAP), a well-established collaborative effort between the Poway Federation of Teachers and the Poway, California, Unified School District, will serve as our primary model in this chapter. Using this model, we shall address in greater detail a few of the questions we initially raised in Chapter 2:

- What are the purposes of the PAR program?
- Which teachers will be included in the PAR program?
- Who will assist participating teachers?
- What type of assistance will participating teachers receive?
- How are PAR programs governed?

We will close with a commentary on a sixth question; namely, what are the results of peer assistance and review programs?

What Are the Purposes of the PAR Program?

If one were to follow an architect around long enough, one would likely hear the architect expressing one of the most fundamental tenets of the profession, "form follows function." This of course refers to the importance of paying particular attention to the nature and purpose of the activities of individuals in the design phase of a construction project. The project has to be designed in a way (the form) that takes into consideration what people do there and why they do what they do (the function). An architect's goal, then, is to design and build structures that will support and enhance the performance of the activities and the accomplishment of the purposes for which the structures are to be built.

Although this may sound like pretty simple stuff, it is by nature very demanding work requiring a great deal of attention to detail. Failure to plan adequately during the design phase of construction can and frequently does result in dysfunctional structures that can actually hinder rather than support the accomplishment of goals. If you doubt the veracity of this claim, we would suggest that you pay special attention to the many structures you inhabit during your varied activities over a normal week. If you do so, we are convinced that you will find numerous examples of both functional and dysfunctional facilities. If you work in school buildings on a regular basis, you probably will not have to venture far to find many good examples of bad buildings.

The architectural tenet that form follows function is just as applicable to the design of PAR programs. Our initial question—

"What are the purposes of a PAR program?"—is critical because the purposes of the program are, in effect, its intended function. Consistent with the aforementioned architectural principle, the purposes of the program should determine its form in terms of

- Its overall scope
- The number and nature of the participants to be included
- The quality and quantity of the resources that must be dedicated to the program to effectively serve those who participate
- The general organizational and governance structures required to initiate and sustain the program on a continuing basis

If, for example, the purpose of a PAR program is to target and assist only veteran teachers who are experiencing problems in the classroom so severe that the teachers could ultimately be subject to dismissal, then the program would be smaller, require fewer resources, and have a different focus than if the program is intended to serve all teachers in the district who are new to the teaching profession. And quite naturally, the nature and scope of the program will differ to an even greater extent if the purpose is to serve both veteran teachers who are experiencing serious problems *and* all teachers who are new to the teaching profession. This latter program would be quite large and require a great many resources. In other words, form follows function!

As we mentioned in Chapter 2, existing programs have a variety of stated purposes. However, the two most common purposes as stated in the documentation of the programs we examined are these: (a) to assist teachers who are new to the profession and (b) to intervene with veteran teachers who are experiencing serious problems in their classroom performance as it relates to teaching and learning. Underlying these two simply stated purposes are any number of implied or shadow purposes that are just as real and equally as important as the stated purposes, even though they may not be explicitly stated. Some of the more obvious shadow purposes of PAR programs are to

- Improve the overall quality of instruction available to students

- Raise the standards of expected performance within the teaching profession
- Remove incompetent teachers from the teaching ranks
- Improve the relationships between teacher unions and management
- Build more fully integrated, effective staff development programs for teachers
- Recognize and support new instructional leadership roles for teachers
- Help bring about increased recognition of teaching as a true profession

At this point in the discussion, we need to emphasize that our labeling of implied purposes as shadow purposes is not intended to be disparaging in any respect. We believe that these so-called shadow purposes are all worthwhile and worthy purposes that ought to be pursued by those who have a vested interest in improving the quality of schools and schooling in America. We have chosen the term *shadow* because it is descriptive of the nature of something that is present and real but remains in the background so as not to detract attention from other, more preferred points of emphasis.

Taking the PPAP as our example, the stated purposes of the program vary according to the particular group of teachers each distinct component of this comprehensive program is intended to serve.[1] The stated purpose of the Year 1, Beginning Teacher Support & Assessment Project, is to "provide teachers new to the Poway Unified School District a support system of an experienced classroom teacher to assist in their first year of teaching." In contrast, the stated purpose of the Year 2, Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Project, is to "provide teachers with a successful transition from completion of the PPAP Year 1 Program, as well as guidance and support into their second year in the District." The third component of the PPAP, Alternative Evaluation, "encourages teachers to continue their professional development and personal growth," whereas the fourth and final component of the PPAP, Permanent Teacher Intervention, is intended to "assist permanent teachers who have been identified as being in serious professional jeopardy."

Again, we want to stress that the stated purposes for PAR programs are generally the tip of the iceberg in terms of what the

designers of such programs hope to accomplish. The PPAP is no exception. As we shall see later in this chapter, many of the shadow purposes mentioned earlier will begin to emerge.

Which Teachers Will Be Included in the PAR Program?

The brief dialogue that follows is a transcript from a portion of an actual conference between a consulting teacher and a teacher who is experiencing some rather serious problems in trying to meet her responsibilities with the students in her classroom.

Consulting Teacher: You have expressed your concern at a little problem you are having with your sixth-period class. Could you tell me a little more about this problem you are experiencing?

Teacher: Well, it's really not a small problem. It's an almost insurmountable problem right now. The fact is—I have lost total control of the class. I hate to say that I've lost it, but I don't seem to be able to get control of it, so I guess I have to accept that responsibility. I cannot get kids to pay attention to me when I teach—I have tried different ways to get their attention but to no avail. I have called parents. I have written discipline notices. I have had administrators periodically come in and observe my classes. But those are just Band-Aid sorts of things. When an administrator is in the room, kids will listen as long as he or she is there, but after the administrator leaves, kids will go back to misbehaving. I don't know what to do about it—I yell! I scream! I plead! I do everything except a rain dance. And frankly, I am at the point where I think if a rain dance would work, I'd do it! But nothing seems to work. I'm really depressed about it because nothing is going on. I'm not teaching. I'm too busy trying to discipline. I really don't know what to do, and I think I just must ask for your help. . . . I understand that I should be able to reach the children. I ought to at least be able to get

> some control of my classroom, but I just can't seem to do that. I'm up against a brick wall right now—I just don't know what to do.

This dialogue is representative of the kinds of problems that a great many teachers are struggling with in countless classrooms across America. From her words, we cannot tell if this teacher is new to the profession or if she is an experienced teacher who has somehow failed to master the basics of organizing and managing a classroom effectively. However, the one thing of which we can be certain is that this is a teacher who is badly in need of some professional assistance. If some intervention does not occur soon, she is a likely candidate to leave the profession on her own, be dismissed from her teaching position, or spend what will seem like an eternity struggling but failing to meet even the most basic expectations of what a teacher should be. And of course, the children in this teacher's classroom will continue to suffer right along with her—unless and until an effective intervention changes the present course of events.

As we mentioned in Chapter 2, there are five possible categories of teachers who may be served in PAR programs. They are (a) teachers who are new to the profession and do not have previous teaching experience; (b) teachers who have previous teaching experience but are new to a particular school district; (c) veteran teachers who are experiencing significant problems in the classroom and are referred to the program; (d) veteran teachers who have not been referred to the program but who, for one reason or another, choose to voluntarily enter the program to improve their teaching performance; and (e) veteran teachers who are due for routine performance evaluations. Although some school districts around the country include only one of these categories of teachers as participants in their PAR programs, others include two, three, or even more categories.

Deciding whom to serve is without question one of the most important and controversial issues that must be resolved by a governance board when a PAR program is initiated. In some instances, all or a portion of this decision may be legislated, as has been done in California. However, in most school districts, the decision about whom to serve is left to the collaborating parties. When it comes to deciding whom to serve, the aforementioned categories provide a number of possibilities. For example, the decision might be made to serve only teachers who are new to the profession, or a slightly dif-

ferent decision might be made to serve all teachers who are new to a district. The decision might be to serve only veteran teachers who are experiencing serious difficulties in meeting their responsibilities in the classroom; alternatively, the decision may be to serve all teachers who are new to the district as well as experienced teachers who are not performing up to expectations. Each of these decisions, as well as any number of other possible alternatives and combinations, bring with them associated costs and benefits that must be carefully weighed.

Well over 90% of the participants in existing PAR programs are new teachers (AFT/NEA, 1998). With a teacher turnover rate of 5% to 10% or more per year being typical for many school districts, the scope of such programs and the accompanying costs are likely to be substantial. At the same time, however, the potential positive impact of serving all teachers who are new to the profession or to a specific district is also substantial. For example, during the first 12 years of PPAP, approximately 50% of the total teaching staff of 1,600 had gone through the program. Clearly, a program that can touch fully one half of the teaching force in a school district in such a significant way within a relatively brief period of time has a rather large potential impact.

The decision to serve only new teachers in a PAR program (i.e., those who do not yet have tenured status) is certainly a less controversial decision than the decision to serve tenured teachers who have been identified as being in serious professional jeopardy. Generally speaking, the decision to serve inexperienced teachers may be more costly in terms of the fiscal resources required to fund a program but are more likely to be less costly from an internal political standpoint. The reverse is quite likely to be true when making the decision to serve experienced teachers who are not performing up to expectations. That is, the fiscal cost may be less, but the political cost is substantially higher.

Furthermore, over the long haul, making the decision to serve only veteran teachers who are experiencing serious problems in the classroom is likely to have a decidedly smaller effect on the overall quality of teaching in a school district than serving all inexperienced teachers. This is true for at least two reasons. First, the number of new teachers tends to be much larger than the number of veteran teachers who are experiencing serious problems in their classrooms. Second, inexperienced teachers have many more years, on average,

of potential service to a school district than do veteran teachers. In this latter regard, serving inexperienced teachers through PAR programs promotes effective induction into the profession. Proper induction, in turn, may substantially reduce teacher turnover and, at the same time, eliminate or reduce many of the problems that neophyte teachers may have experienced later on in their careers had they not participated in a PAR program.

There certainly is value attached to choosing to include veteran teachers in PAR programs. By choosing to include veteran teachers who are not meeting performance expectations in their PAR programs, management and labor can demonstrate to their local communities in a very convincing manner that they are quite serious about their commitment to high-quality instruction by holding teachers accountable for their performance in the classroom. However, the decision to include veteran teachers who are experiencing problems in meeting their teaching responsibilities in PAR programs carries with it an obligation to ensure that safeguards are built into the program to protect the rights of these very vulnerable individuals. When a teacher is identified for intervention, that teacher is *at the same time* identified as one who is in serious jeopardy of losing his or her job. Therefore, multiple checks and balances must be in place to ensure that there is not unwarranted referral of veteran teachers to PAR programs for purposes of intervention.

Even though program costs (both fiscal and political) must be a consideration in determining who will be served, costs should not be the primary consideration. In the final analysis, the decision about whom to serve depends on the purposes of the program. As was noted at the beginning of this chapter, most PAR programs have stated purposes that include both assisting teachers who are new to the profession, and intervening with experienced teachers who are experiencing serious problems in discharging their responsibilities in the classroom. Clearly, there is a need to provide assistance to both of these groups of clients.

In this regard, PPAP can be described as a fully integrated, all-inclusive system in terms of the teachers it serves. It provides support to teachers at all stages in their careers and has both mandatory and voluntary aspects in regard to participation. All probationary teachers (which include both first- and second-year teachers in the district) are required to participate in the Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Project. The intensity and emphases of the experi-

ences provided to these probationary teachers varies, depending on whether they are in their first or second year.

PPAP also contains an intervention program for permanent teachers who have been identified as being in serious professional jeopardy due to an overall unsatisfactory performance rating. Teachers who receive an initial unsatisfactory performance evaluation from their site administrator may, at their discretion, request assistance from the program in the form of a consulting teacher. The consulting and participating teachers work jointly to develop and implement a plan for improvement in areas in which the participating teacher was found not to meet performance standards. Although participation for teachers who receive an initial unsatisfactory performance evaluation is voluntary, a permanent teacher may be placed in a mandatory assistance program by the PPAP Governance Board on the receipt of a second overall unsatisfactory performance evaluation. In the event that a teacher is placed in the mandatory assistance program, then the subsequent evaluation is conducted by a three-person team of professionals, including a site evaluator (that is, a building administrator), a district administrator, and a third individual appointed by the PPAP Governance Board.

As mentioned earlier, PPAP also has an alternative evaluation component in which veteran teachers can request to participate at their discretion. This program is quite flexible and allows those veteran teachers who volunteer the freedom to select their own professional improvement goals in collaboration with their site administrators. Once selected, these goals become the basis for the teachers' performance evaluation at the conclusion of the year in which they are chosen. The alternative evaluation aspect of PPAP includes an interactive component that causes teachers in the program to interact with their peers a minimum of two times during the school year.

The only category of teacher to be routinely excluded from PAR programs is the teacher who is having difficulty meeting his or her responsibilities in the classroom because of factors that are tangentially, rather than directly, related to one's ability to teach effectively. These factors include, for example, drug or alcohol abuse, other serious health problems, disregard for district policy, breach of state or federal law, or perhaps a demonstrated lack of commitment on the part of a teacher to consistently put forth the necessary effort that is required to perform at a reasonably high level in the classroom. Teachers who exhibit these kinds of problems are typically regarded

as candidates for administrative interventions rather than as recipients of the intensive instructional support and assistance that is at the heart of most PAR programs.

Who Will Assist Participating Teachers?

Once critical decisions have been made about the purposes of a PAR program and those decisions have been followed by a second set of decisions concerning which teachers will participate in the program, then a natural progression leads us to shift our focus to a third and fourth set of decisions. These sets relate to who will provide assistance to the teachers and what kinds of assistance will be provided. We address the first issue in this section and the second one in the following section.

For the vast majority of the existing PAR programs around the country, the heart of the program is embodied in the person of the consulting teacher. In rare instances, such as the Minneapolis Professional Development System, for example, there is no consulting teacher per se. Rather, the participating teacher selects a team or panel to work with him or her to enhance his or her professional development. Exceptions aside, the success of the great majority of PAR programs is determined in large part by the effectiveness of consulting teachers as they carry out their work with participating teachers. The expertise and credibility of consulting teachers (who are sometimes labeled *cooperating teachers, interveners,* or *mentor teachers*) are critical to how well a program functions because the consulting teachers are the direct link between the governing board and the individual teacher in the classroom. It is at the classroom level where the real work of PAR programs gets done; the individual classroom is "ground zero," where policy is effectively translated into practice and consulting teachers share their expertise, talent, and ability with participating teachers to improve instruction.

Consulting teachers are screened and selected by the PAR Governance Board based on a rather extensive set of criteria. Typically, consulting teachers are highly experienced, well-trained, certified teachers with sterling records of outstanding teaching performance. Candidates for appointments as consulting teachers are routinely required to submit detailed formal applications accompanied by

letters of recommendation from those who have a direct knowledge of their teaching expertise, group process skills, and written and oral communications skills. In some programs, such as the New York City Peer Intervention Program, applicants for positions as "staff interveners" may also be required to engage in role-playing exercises, in-box activities, and personal interviews as a part of the selection process.

The most common practice among districts with PAR programs is to release consulting teachers from their normal teaching responsibilities on a full-time basis so they may work with participating teachers. Their caseloads (that is, the number of participating teachers for whom they are responsible) range from 9 to 20 participating teachers. Quite obviously, the number of participants assigned to consulting teachers varies depending on the nature of the responsibilities of the consulting teacher and the status of the teacher participant (i.e., new teacher versus experienced teacher requiring intervention). Typically, more responsibilities and more experienced teachers translate into smaller caseloads.

Most consulting teachers are appointed to terms ranging from 2 to 4 years and receive a stipend equaling approximately 10% to 20% of their base teaching salary in addition to their regular teaching salary in exchange for performing their special duties. Some of the more well-established PAR programs include provisions that consulting teachers must return to the classroom after they have served their terms and are not eligible to apply for administrative positions for a specified period after their service as a consulting teacher has ended. These provisions are apparently intended to serve as safeguards to reinforce the concept that consulting teachers are indeed the peers of teacher participants rather than their supervisors. They are simply serving in a special role for a limited time, with every intention of returning to their primary assignments as classroom teachers at the conclusion of their service as consulting teachers.

Consulting teachers perform a wide range of duties depending on the requirements of the particular programs they are charged with implementing. Some of the responsibilities most frequently listed in documents describing PAR programs are as follows:

- Mentoring and evaluating teachers during their initial year(s) of service in a school district

- Determining the eligibility of teachers to be recommended for inclusion in intervention programs
- Planning growth activities and assisting and supporting teachers in intervention programs in their efforts to improve performance
- Evaluating the performance of participating teachers and reporting the results to the appropriate parties
- Making recommendations regarding the employment status of participating teachers
- Maintaining adequate records pertaining to their work with participating teachers and providing these records to the appropriate parties as required

Now, let us return to our example, the PPAP, to see how that program serves its teacher clients. As was mentioned earlier in this chapter, the PPAP has four components in place to serve teachers at different stages in their careers. These are the Year 1 Program (for teachers new to the district), the Year 2 Program (which assists teachers in making a transition from the Year 1 Program to the regular teaching force), the Alternative Evaluation Program (for experienced teachers who wish to grow in self-selected areas of professional interest), and the Permanent Teacher Intervention Program (for veteran teachers who are in serious professional jeopardy due to unsatisfactory performance evaluations). Consulting teachers play a key role in the implementation of all of these components except the Alternative Evaluation Program. This Alternative Evaluation Program is more or less a collaborative effort between tenured teachers who have a history of consistently performing up to expectations and their respective building or site supervisors.

In Poway, consulting teachers are selected by a committee using a rigorous screening and interview process. Some of the committee members are also members of the Governance Board. This ensures consistency of policy and increases the communication across committees.

Candidates for appointment as consulting teachers must have a minimum of 5 years of successful teaching experience and be tenured. Although consulting teachers remain members of the bargain-

ing unit of the local teachers' union, they are released full-time from their normal teaching assignments to work with a maximum of 15 new teachers each year. At the beginning of their terms, consulting teachers receive training to help them carry out their responsibilities. In addition, there are opportunities for ongoing professional development. In 1999-2000, teacher consultants received a stipend of $4,300 for each year of service. After 3 years of service, consulting teachers return to regular classroom teaching assignments.

What Type of Assistance Will Participating Teachers Receive?

Now that we have given the reader a quick overview of the qualifications and role of the consulting teacher, we turn our attention to how consulting teachers function within the PPAP to provide assistance to their teacher clients. Teachers who are new to the profession have a 2-year probationary period during which they are expected to earn tenure in the Poway Unified School District. The Year 1 and Year 2 Programs are designed to provide the proper training and supervision that these new teachers need for them to be successfully inducted into the profession.

The Year 1 Program was conceived with the underlying premise that experienced teachers have a legitimate and important role to play in screening and training new entrants into the profession. In the Year 1 Program, consulting teachers assume the primary responsibility for supervising and evaluating first-year teachers. Consulting teachers maintain contact with all of their first-year clients on a weekly basis. They conduct individual professional development activities for their clients in the new teachers' classrooms. They assist the new teachers in mastering all phases of instruction, including, for example, effective lesson planning, presentation, evaluation, and classroom management. Consulting teachers also assist new teachers in understanding the range of professional obligations that accompany their new role as teacher. Consulting teachers generally do whatever it takes to help these neophytes in their efforts to become successful teachers.

The Year 1 Program is not just a mentoring or peer coaching program; it is a peer evaluation program as well. Consulting teachers

are required to spend a minimum of 20 hours of contact time with each client during each evaluation period (two evaluation periods a year). Consulting teachers are also charged with keeping the site supervisor involved in the supervision and evaluation process during the course of the year. Consulting teachers prepare three formal written observations on each teacher they supervise during each of the two evaluation periods and are responsible for providing the teacher's formal evaluation for the year. The consulting teacher's evaluative findings are submitted to the Governance Board, which accepts or rejects those findings and forwards its recommendations to the superintendent. The superintendent, in turn, makes a recommendation to the school board concerning the employment status of the Year 1 teacher.

The Year 2 Program is a relatively new component of the PPAP, with 1999-2000 being its third year of existence. As has been noted, the Year 2 component of the PPAP is designed to provide teachers with help making the transition from the Year 1 Program into the regular teaching force. The Year 2 program differs substantially from the Year 1 Program in several important respects.

Unlike the Year 1 Program, the Year 2 Program is primarily a peer coaching or mentoring program. Consulting teachers work with second-year teachers by assisting them with the implementation of individual induction plans (IIPs). Successful implementation of the IIPs is the primary goal of the Year 2 Program. Individual assistance is provided to Year 2 teachers to help them to further refine and transfer pedagogical skills they learned during their first year, develop additional skills in using teaching resources and materials more effectively, and ultimately to become independent and reflective teachers. Second-year teachers participate in a variety of activities based on their own IIP needs and goals, including peer coaching at their school sites with their consulting teachers. They are also encouraged to participate in a number of districtwide opportunities for professional growth, including collegial meetings with other second-year teachers. At the high school level, site-based (rather than district-based) consulting teachers work with second-year teachers. These site-based consulting teachers receive a reduced teaching load, with the amount of reduction depending on the number of second-year teachers that require supervision at their sites.

The Year 2 Program is essentially a formative peer evaluation process, unlike the Year 1 Program, which is summative as well as

formative. The consulting teacher's role during Year 2 is restricted to providing feedback, assistance, and support. Summative evaluation during Year 2 is the responsibility of the site administrator. The PPAP Governance Board manages the Year 2 Program through a series of regular meetings with consulting teachers and site supervisors. During these meetings, the Board receives reports on program activities and provides suggestions and support relative to the operation of the Year 2 Program.

The third component of the PPAP, Alternative Evaluation, encourages teachers to continue their professional development and personal growth by setting individual goals that become the basis for their performance evaluations each year. The Alternative Evaluation Program emphasizes the need for personal reflection and for collaboration between the teacher, his or her colleagues, and the site supervisor. Site supervisors and teachers meet together during a conference in the fall of the year to set goals for evaluation and to establish the standards that will be used to evaluate them. There are two additional scheduled conferences during the year between the teacher and the site supervisor to discuss progress toward the goals as well as any other matters that might have arisen. A unique feature of the Alternative Evaluation Program is the requirement that each participating teacher builds into his or her evaluation plan a minimum of two interactive sessions with his or her colleagues during the course of the year. This requirement may be met through peer coaching arrangements, classroom visitations, or site-level or grade-level meetings.

To participate in the Alternative Evaluation program, a teacher must be a permanent teacher with a minimum of 5 years of successful teaching experience in the District. In addition, the teacher must have demonstrated teaching competence, have a well-defined educational philosophy, and have an established record of participation in professional development activities. Teachers may volunteer to participate in the program, but the site supervisor makes the final determination as to who will participate in any given year.

The fourth and final component of PPAP is the Permanent Teacher Intervention Program (PTIP). This component was under revision in the spring of 2000 as a result of the new California law governing PAR programs in that state. Therefore, the information that follows is based on the program that existed during the 1999-2000 school year. The goal of the PTIP is to provide assistance and

support to improve the performance of teachers who have been identified as being in serious professional jeopardy because of an overall unsatisfactory performance evaluation. The PTIP Program is by far the most complex component of the PPAP.

A permanent teacher who receives an overall unsatisfactory performance evaluation from his or her site supervisor may voluntarily request the assistance of a consulting teacher from the PTIP. A consulting teacher will be assigned to work with the teacher to provide assistance and support as necessary to improve the teacher's performance in areas in which the teacher was found to be deficient. The consulting teacher collaborates with the teacher and the site supervisor to craft an improvement plan and then works with the teacher to implement that plan. The consulting teacher makes no summative evaluation of the teacher's progress; he or she only provides help and assistance in a formative way. Summative evaluation remains the responsibility of the site supervisor.

As mentioned earlier, participation in the PTIP is voluntary for a teacher who receives one overall unsatisfactory performance evaluation. For those teachers who receive a second overall unsatisfactory performance evaluation, however, participation is mandatory. The decision to place or not to place a teacher in mandatory intervention is made by the Board after considering all of the prior efforts and resources that have been expended in an effort to improve that teacher's performance. The Governance Board also determines the length of time a teacher is to remain in mandatory intervention on a case-by-case basis. However, it is never less than one semester.

The evaluation of a teacher in mandatory intervention is conducted by an evaluation team composed of the site supervisor, a district-level administrator, and a third person selected by the PPAP Governance Board. The consulting teacher, although operating outside of the formal evaluation process, works with the teacher to improve performance in areas that are deemed unsatisfactory and meets periodically with the three-person team of evaluators to coordinate support and assistance efforts on behalf of the teacher participant. Periodic classroom observations are conducted individually or in concert by the members of the evaluation team. The result of the process is a final written evaluation report that is signed by all three members of the evaluation team.

If the PTIP fails to improve the performance of the teacher participant to the point that is judged to be satisfactory, then dismissal

is an option. In the event that dismissal procedures are initiated against a teacher in the PTIP, the Governance Board will choose a qualified expert to conduct an independent review of the assistance and evaluation process as it has been applied in that particular case. A written report of the review is submitted to the Governance Board, which determines if the intervention plan met all contractual and statutory rights of the teacher in question. A copy of the review by the qualified expert is also sent to the superintendent and to the president of the Poway Federation of Teachers. The PPAP makes no recommendation on the final disposition of the case following this independent review. Instead, the superintendent is charged with the responsibility of making a recommendation on the employment status of the teacher to the Board of Education.

The comprehensive, all-inclusive approach used by the Poway Unified School District is, in many respects, typical of a number of the other highly visible programs around the country. For example, PAR in Toledo, Cincinnati, Rochester, and Minneapolis all make provision in one way or another for the inclusion of teachers who are new to the district as well as veteran teachers who are experiencing difficulty in discharging their professional teaching responsibilities. Others, such as the New York City Peer Intervention Program, however, severely limit access to their program. The New York City program serves only selected, tenured teachers who volunteer for participation in the program. As was pointed out previously, PAR programs around the country vary widely in terms of whether and when inclusion is voluntary or mandatory, the level of support provided to teacher participants, and the duration of the support offered and received. It should be pointed out, however, that most PAR programs make an effort to include as many teachers as they possibly can, given the resources available to support the program.

How Are PAR Programs Governed?

Thus far, we have focused on three key players: the participating teacher, the consulting teacher, and the site supervisor. There are other key players associated with PAR programs. PAR programs are universally administered in some form of shared governance arrangement between school district administrators and the local

affiliate of the teacher union or association. In effect, PAR programs represent a partnership between management and labor, whereby both parties agree to assume joint responsibility for the creation and operation of the program. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the central feature of this joint governance arrangement is usually the governance panel (alternatively, governance board). In a number of programs, a decision by the governance panel requires more than a simple majority of those voting. The chair of the governance panel is sometimes rotated between labor and management on an annual basis. The governance panel has the authority and the responsibility to establish policies and to define the parameters of the PAR program in terms of its development, implementation, and evaluation.

Let us return to PPAP to see how governance is handled in that program. PPAP is jointly governed by the Poway Federation of Teachers and the Poway Unified School District under the umbrella of the Educational Policy Trust Agreement (see Resource F). The Governance Board is comprised of three union and two management representatives, with four votes being deemed a majority when making decisions. The Board governs all aspects of the program and meets periodically (and in specially called meetings as needed) throughout the school year. Day-to-day operations of PPAP are managed by one of the senior teacher consultants. The Governance Board is responsible for the following:

- Selecting consulting teachers
- Reviewing consulting teacher reports
- Recommending support and assistance for teacher participants
- Placing teachers in the intervention program and approving intervention plans
- Determining the length of time teachers remain in the intervention program
- Choosing an independent expert to review the assistance and evaluation process for teachers in the intervention program
- Making a determination as to whether or not the intervention plan has met all statutory and contractual requirements

The governance structure of PPAP is fairly typical of most of the established programs that are described in the literature. Perhaps one of the most interesting duties missing from the list of responsibilities of the PPAP Governance Board is the one pertaining to making a final recommendation regarding the employment status of teachers who have been placed in an intervention program. The PPAP Board makes no recommendation regarding the final disposition of the case for teachers in the intervention program following a review by an outside expert to determine if the intervention plan has met all statutory and contractual requirements. Consequently, the Board also does not deal with appeals resulting from unfavorable evaluations. These responsibilities rest solely with management.

How Effective Are PAR Programs?

Of all the aspects of PAR programs, perhaps the most difficult to get a handle on is how effective they actually are in terms of accomplishing the purposes for which they were established. Although some of more established programs have been around for almost 20 years, PAR is still a relatively new and rather rare phenomenon. Consequently, there is little hard evidence available in terms of its overall impact as an educational reform. Although the concept and even the practice of peer assistance and review have received some rather prestigious endorsements from highly respected entities, such as the RAND Corporation (Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, & Bernstein, 1984) and the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996), there is little evidence other than widely scattered anecdotal reports and some isolated numbers here and there that PAR programs achieve their potential. There is even less hard evidence pertaining to the cost benefits or cost-effectiveness of PAR programs, particularly in contrast with more traditional administrator-dominated teacher evaluation programs. As Lieberman (1998) has reminded all those who may be inclined to be overly enthusiastic about the potential impact of PAR programs on teaching and learning, "Theoretically, the ultimate criterion for evaluating peer review should be its effects on student achievement related

to its costs" (p. 94). And, then, in describing the results of the Toledo Plan, Leiberman writes,

> In Toledo, most of the regular teachers have come through the peer review process. At no time, however, has anyone, including peer review's strongest supporters, demonstrated that pupil achievement has gone up as a result of peer review. The claim has been made that peer review results in better support for new teachers and a more effective procedure for terminating incompetent tenured teachers; presumably, pupil achievement will improve as a result. . . . The relationship is merely assumed, without any evidence whatsoever of its magnitude. (p. 95)

Whereas most reasonable people would readily agree with Lieberman's (1998) contention that a complete cost-benefit analysis of PAR programs in terms of their effects on student achievement is the ideal barometer for measuring program effectiveness, such analyses are not easily accomplished (even by his own admission). Even so, we could still wish for such an analysis of PAR programs and their effects. In fact, while we are in a wishing mood, we may as well wish for cost-benefit analyses to be performed on every significant aspect of schools and schooling to see just what kind of returns we are realizing from our diverse investments in education. And while we are wishing, we may as well wish for analyses of the interactions between and among the huge array of complex and difficult-to-measure factors that compose this highly intricate social process that we refer to as education.

Consider once again, the central premise underlying the work of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) that we quoted at the beginning of this volume: "On the whole, the school reform movement has ignored the obvious: What teachers know and can do makes the crucial difference in what children learn" (p. 5). If one accepts this premise, then it logically follows that anything that has a positive impact on *what teachers know and can do* has some real potential for improving *what and how much children are learning* in America's schools.

Absent evidence as to the impact of teachers' participation in PAR programs on student learning, we certainly do need evidence

regarding the extent to which these programs are accomplishing their stated purposes. If they are not, even the *potential* of PAR programs must be called into question. At the beginning of this chapter, we listed some of the underlying purposes of PAR programs. They included the following:

- Improving the overall quality of instruction available to students
- Improving retention rates for inexperienced teachers
- Raising the standards for expected performance within the teaching profession
- Removing incompetent teachers from the teaching ranks
- Improving the relationships between teacher unions and management
- Building more fully integrated, effective staff development programs for teachers
- Recognizing and supporting new instructional leadership roles for teachers
- Helping to bring about increased recognition of teaching as a true profession

Where is the evidence in support of PAR programs achieving these purposes? Although it too is scant, here follows what we have been able to uncover.

PPAP has reported the following results for the first 13 years the program has been in existence:

- Approximately 50% of the total teaching staff have gone through the program.
- Of more than 800 new teachers, 34 were not renewed for a second year.
- Twelve "graduates" of the Beginning Teacher Support & Assessment Program were ultimately not renewed for tenure.
- Principals have reported observing dramatic differences in second-year probationary teachers that have been through the program.

- The program has achieved unanimous support from all parties (union and management).

The following testimonial by a middle school principal is indicative of the support that the PPAP has gained from school-level managers:

> In the Poway Unified School District in the past 12 years, teachers new to the profession have had the benefit of teacher consultants. The teacher consultants have the time and energy to focus on observing, assisting, and evaluating new teachers. The quality of their evaluation is consistently top quality. Based on my experiences since the inception of the program, I have seen teachers in their second year look like they have been teaching for seven or eight years. . . . Their classroom routines are organized right from the start, instructions are clear and concise, and transitions from subject to subject are smooth. (Susan Van Zant as quoted in PUSD, 1999)

Similarly, Toledo has reported that about 10% of new teachers are not rehired under their PAR system, as opposed to 2% or less when the decision to rehire was solely a management function. Furthermore, one third of the teachers referred to intervention left teaching through retirement, resignation, or dismissal by the end of the year in which they were referred. Rochester, New York, has reported that most teachers entering the intervention program have improved, and 10% of the 60 teachers assigned to intervention since 1988 have left the profession. Columbus, Ohio, has reported a retention rate for new teachers after 5 years of 80%, as opposed to a national rate of 50%. Of the 178 teachers that have participated in the intervention program in Columbus, 44 % were released in good standing, 12% resigned, and 30% retired. Roughly one third of the teachers referred for intervention each year in Cincinnati, Ohio, are reported to have left teaching by the end of the year through resignation, retirement, or dismissal, whereas the remaining two thirds are reported to have improved their performance dramatically (AFT/NEA, 1998).

Admittedly, these results are sketchy. In addition, there is no realistic basis for comparison of the results that have been achieved under PAR with those that might have been achieved under more traditional administration-dominated systems. However, the results are reasonably consistent from program to program. Although we certainly need a great deal more evidence—especially hard data—related to the effectiveness of PAR programs, there is reason to believe that well-conceptualized, thoughtfully planned, and carefully implemented PAR programs can be successful. Before we can determine whether they have been successful, however, we must ensure they are well conceptualized, thoughtfully planned, and carefully implemented. It is to this end that we wrote this book.

An Epilogue

Earlier in this chapter, we included a brief dialogue between a teacher who was experiencing difficulties in the classroom and her consulting teacher. This dialogue was a transcript of an actual conference that took place between the two teachers early in the school year. We do not wish to leave our readers wondering what happened to that teacher. So we are going to let you see for yourself by sharing a small portion of a second conference.

During the course of the first semester, there were numerous planning meetings, observations, and postobservation conferences between these same two teachers. What follows is an excerpt from a postobservation conference between the teacher and the consulting teacher several months after that initial conference during which the teacher who was experiencing difficulties asked for some assistance. This second conference took place after a classroom observation during which the consulting teacher had observed the teacher as she implemented some of the instructional strategies that had been discussed as a means to improve her teaching performance.

Consulting Teacher: Well, how do you feel the class went today?

Teacher: Why, I thought that the class went pretty well. Of course, a little bit of it was because you were in there. But I must honestly say that I am seeing a difference! It's more of a sense right now than an actuality—

> and I know I am digressing a little bit right now because you asked me about the lesson, but I'd like to tell you—I think that I have surprised the students! When they walk in the class now, the minute they are seated, I go straight into the lesson. They are surprised. It's almost like I have learned to get the jump on them. The four or five kids who tend to initiate problems have a harder time initiating now because those students who tend to be drawn in find themselves being a little more irritated now by those four of five kids who start problems. They want to listen to me! I'm not sure if they want to listen because they are interested or because they don't know where I'm coming from right now. They are really surprised! I'm feeling a little bit good about it! I gotta tell ya, I'm feeling a little bit good! Hopefully, if I keep it up, things should continue to get better and better!

Unfortunately, the reader cannot hear the excitement in this teacher's voice as she relates her pleasure at the realization that she is beginning to take control of the situation in her classroom, that it is within her power to become a successful teacher. At the same time, however, it's just as well that the reader did not have to experience the defeat and hopelessness that were so ominously present in her voice when she first asked the consulting teacher for assistance.

These two brief dialogues relate the as-yet-incomplete story of a single teacher's struggle to fulfill her promise as a teacher. But we all know that this teacher's story is being played out over and over again in thousands and tens of thousands of classrooms across America. Imagine the impact on teaching and learning if many more stories such as this one could have happy endings. That is the purpose of PAR—to write happy endings to many more stories like the one we have shared with you in this chapter.

Note

1. All of the quotations that follow are taken from the documentation of PPAP. Because of the brevity of the document and the fact that the pages are unnumbered, specific page numbers will not be given.

5

Reporting and Using the Results

In combination, the data collected (e.g., notes made during or immediately after classroom observations) and the judgments made based on the data (e.g., ratings assigned to the criteria according to some rubric) constitute the *results* of the PAR process. The purpose of this chapter is to examine how these results are (a) communicated and (b) used to make decisions. The results can be communicated in writing, orally, or both. And, as mentioned several times previously, there are two primary uses of the results: to help individual teachers improve the quality of their teaching (termed *assistance*) or to move them out of the teaching profession (termed *review*).[1] Consistent with our purpose and these alternatives, this chapter contains four major sections: (a) preparing written reports, (b) conferencing, (c) using results for improvement and (d) using results for the removal of teachers. In addition, there is a brief intermediate section on ethical issues involved in reports and conferences and a short closing section.

Preparing Written Reports

Movie mogul Samuel Goldwyn has been quoted as saying, "A verbal contract isn't worth the paper it's written on." An exclusive reliance on oral communication often leads to faulty recollections,

misinterpretations, and, at an emotional level, hurt feelings. Written reports have at least three advantages over oral reports. First, because the preparation of written reports typically involves more time and effort, more thought goes into the preparation of written reports. Second, written reports can be reviewed and rewritten as necessary. This adds to the precision of written reports. Third, and consistent with Samuel Goldwyn's point, written reports often carry legal weight.

Regardless of whether PAR results are used to help teachers become better teachers or to move them out of teaching, thoughtful and precise reports are a "good thing." If they are to be used to make decisions concerning continuing employment, the legal ramifications of written reports are extremely important. As a consequence, written reports should be a part of every PAR program.

Written reports can be of two types: forms or narratives. Table 5.1 illustrates a form; Table 5.2 is a sample narrative. The most obvious thing about forms is their structure. They tend to have rows and columns. Forms also require a minimum amount of writing. People complete forms by making marks and writing words and short phrases. Narratives, on the other hand, are largely without structure. The writer of a narrative, as in the case shown in Table 5.2, may use headings as organizers. Furthermore, as the name implies, narratives rely on extensive writing.

The choice of report—form, narrative, or some combination—should depend on the purpose of the report. If the purpose is review (i.e., continuing employment decisions are to be made), then forms are generally preferred. If the purpose is assistance, however, narrative reports are preferable.

Forms

Table 5.1 is a summary report form for use in PAR programs. It is a composite of forms used in Poway, California, and Toledo, Ohio. Note that the PAR criteria are the central focus of the form. They are placed in five categories, known in Poway as "domains."[2] To the left of the criteria are two columns. By placing a check mark in one of the columns, the person completing the form indicates whether the teacher has or has not met the standard for each criterion.[3] The top part of the form is intended for basic information: teacher's name,

(text continues on page 104)

TABLE 5.1 Sample Summary Report

TEACHER'S NAME	COURSE/SUBJECT/GRADE LEVEL	SCHOOL	DATE
SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER	TEMPORARY ☐	PROBATIONARY ☐1ST YEAR ☐2ND YEAR	TENURED ☐

DOES NOT MEET STANDARDS	MEETS STANDARDS	DOMAINS AND CRITERIA *[Note. Written justification for all items marked "does not meet standards" is given on page 2 of this report, "Supportive Evidence"]*
		DOMAIN I: PLANNING AND DESIGNING INSTRUCTION
___	___	Designs long-range plans to accomplish yearly learning goals
___	___	Selects appropriate lesson objectives
___	___	Designs lessons that include elements essential to learning
		DOMAIN II: INSTRUCTION
___	___	Delivers instruction effectively
___	___	Uses appropriate learning materials and instructional strategies
___	___	Creates learning opportunities for all students
___	___	Demonstrates subject matter competence
		DOMAIN III: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT
___	___	Provides a positive learning environment that promotes appropriate behavior

___	___	Effectively manages instructional time
___	___	Prevents misbehavior from interfering with teaching and learning
		DOMAIN IV: ASSESSMENT
___	___	Establishes clear performance standards
___	___	Monitors student learning
___	___	Adjusts teaching based on assessment
___	___	Uses assessment results to provide timely, accurate, and constructive feedback
		DOMAIN V: PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES
___	___	Complies with established rules, regulations, policies, and laws
___	___	Shares in the responsibility for the smooth operation of the school

OVERALL JUDGMENT	RECOMMENDATION
___ Exceeds Expectations ___ Meets Expectations ___ Does Not Meet Expectations	___ Do Not Renew Contract ___ Renew Contract for Another Year; Intervention ___ Renew Contract for Another Year; No Intervention ___ Award Tenure/Continuing Contract

TEACHER'S SIGNATURE	CONSULTING TEACHER'S SIGNATURE	PRINCIPAL'S SIGNATURE

SOURCE: Printed with permission from Poway Professional Assistance Program.

TABLE 5.2 Sample Narrative Report

Wednesday, October 28 1:20—2:10 PM; Literature Class

Results of Formal Observation

As students entered the classroom following their lunch break, Jane greeted students at the door and reminded them to have their literature homework and textbooks out on their desks. On the overhead was an activity that asked students to reread their homework from the previous night and underline several ideas they believed to be the best. The overhead also instructed students to be prepared to share what they had underlined with their group members. When the bell rang, all students were seated and appeared to be following directions. Jane spoke to a group of students about the key ideas they might consider, and it appeared other students listened to her directions as well. She took roll and then circulated among the students, checking for homework and on-task behavior. She recorded information regarding homework on a clipboard.

After 15 minutes into this activity, the talking throughout the room increased, but Jane continued to direct her attention to individuals. Jane called for students' attention and when everyone was quiet, she told them to share with their group members what they had underlined in their homework. Students were told they had five minutes to do this and that they should appoint a spokesperson from their group to summarize the insights. When Jane gave the signal to begin, groups appeared to follow directions.

When time for group sharing was up, Jane signaled for students' attention with a bell. Jane quickly reviewed expectations for group sharing and then a spokesperson from each group shared quickly as Jane recorded key words from their summaries on the overhead.

Students were directed to open their literature books. When they had done so, Jane began to read orally. She intermittently stopped to discuss what was read; it appeared the same four or five students volunteered to share their thoughts. The reading was still in progress when the bell rang. As students packed up to leave, Jane told them to read the rest of the chapter as homework.

Strengths

Several strengths were noted:

- Setting expectations at the beginning of the period
- Creating on-task behavior
- Preparing materials prior to instruction (overhead)
- Rewarding students for appropriate behavior (group points)
- Circulating during student work periods
- Setting and reviewing expectations for transition time
- Complimenting students

Questions as Basis for Improvement

- How might you have created interest and purpose for the reading?
- What key concepts and/or vocabulary words were important for students to know and understand?
- What do you think would have happened to the discussions if students had this prior knowledge and understanding?
- How might you create interest for extended reading?
- What is another way you can give all students access to the literature beside the whole-group reading format?

SOURCE: Adapted from PUSD (1999).

course/subject/grade level/ school, date, social security number, and contract status.

The bottom part of the form has spaces for an overall judgment, a recommendation, and three signatures (the participating teacher, the consulting teacher, and the principal). The overall judgment requires the person completing the form to look across all criteria and determine whether the participating teacher "exceeds expectations," "meets expectations," or "does not meet expectations." In many cases, a simple "meets expectations" or "does not meet expectations" will suffice.

Table 5.1 includes four possible recommendations: do not renew contract; renew contract for another year (no intervention needed); renew contract for another year (intervention needed); and award tenure/continuing contract. These are examples of possible recommendations. The actual recommendation options must be consistent with the decisions that are possible and defensible, given the PAR results and the contractual requirements operating in the district.[4]

The note included under the heading "Domains and Criteria" is important for two reasons. First, it reminds us of the need to document, with data, all negative ratings given and recommendations made (see Chapter 4). Second, it suggests there is a companion form to the "Summary Report" (see Table 5.3).[5]

The Supporting Data Form shown in Table 5.3 is one example of a companion form to the Summary Report. Note that the Supporting Data Form is organized around the five domains included in the Summary Report. Using the domains to organize both forms helps make the connection between the two forms clear and explicit.

The two columns to the right of the "Domain" column are labeled "Data Indicating Strengths" and "Data Indicating Weaknesses."[6] The data placed in the cells of the Supporting Data Form generally consist of short phrases or sentences, often in bullet form. The follow examples of evidence might be associated with Domain II: Instruction.

Evidence Indicating Strengths

- Use of examples in teaching concepts and skills
- Use of videotaped production in conjunction with written materials to provide students with multiple ways of learning

TABLE 5.3 Supporting Data Form

DOMAIN	*DATA INDICATING STRENGTHS*	*DATA INDICATING WEAKNESSES*
Planning and designing instruction		
Instruction		
Classroom management		
Assessment		
Professional responsibilities		

- Extra attention paid to those students having the greatest difficulty learning
- During presentations, teacher used personal knowledge to fill in gaps in the textbook

Evidence Indicating Weaknesses

- General lack of precision in teacher's explanations; consequently, students had a lot of questions
- Assigned readings too difficult for about two thirds of the students.
- Questions directed to a small group of students (about five); over half of the students were never asked a question
- Several factual errors made in presenting material to the students (e.g., . . .)

For each domain, the amount of data listed in each column should be consistent with the check marks made on the Summary Report. For example, if all the check marks in Domain I: Planning and Designing Instruction indicated that the teacher "meets standards," there should be more data indicating strengths and fewer data indicating weaknesses. Conversely, if all the check marks in Domain III: Classroom Management indicated that the teacher "does not meet standards," there would be more data indicating weaknesses and fewer data indicating strengths. The preponderance of "negative" data in this latter instance would suggest the need for some type of professional development (i.e., intervention).[7]

One final comment about Tables 5.1 and 5.3 is needed before we move on to a discussion of narratives. As we mentioned in Chapter 3, different criteria often require different kinds of evidence. Although Domain II and Domain III lend themselves quite nicely to formal classroom observations, such is not (or may not be) the case for the other three domains. Domain I, for example, would seem to call for an examination of the teacher's plans (long- and short-term). Similarly, some elements of Domain IV may require an examination of the teacher's assessment instruments (e.g., quizzes, worksheets), followed by an interview with the teacher.

Last, Domain V: Professional Responsibilities does not lend itself to formal classroom observation at all. Rather, the evidence pertaining to this domain needs to be gathered during informal observations and discussions over a fairly lengthy period of time. Because of this, some PAR systems have given the responsibility for evaluating Domain V to the building principal.[8] Table 5.4 contains a Principal Summary form that is a modification of one used in the Toledo Plan. In Table 5.4, the ratings (i.e., satisfactory, unsatisfactory) and data (i.e., "other documented information") are combined in a single form.

Narratives

Narratives (such as the one shown in Table 5.2) have several advantages over forms. First, they are far more descriptive. Extra detail can be provided (e.g., the teacher "recorded information regarding homework on a clipboard"); adjectives and, particularly, adverbs can be included (e.g., the students "shared quickly;" the teacher "intermittently stopped"). Second, narratives enable the reader to see the flow of classroom events. In this sequential view of classroom life, earlier events provide a context for understanding later ones. Third, narratives "speak" to teachers. As Clandinin and Connelly (1995) have pointed out,

> Our best understanding of teacher knowledge is a narrative one. . . . In this narrative view of teachers' knowledge, we mean more than teachers' telling stories of specific children and events. We mean that their way of being in the classroom is storied: As teachers they are characters in their own stories of teaching, which they author. (p. 12)

In actuality, the narrative is the first part of Table 5.2 (Results of Formal Observation). Following the narrative, there is a set of strengths and a set of questions that are intended to provide the basis for the development of an improvement plan. Both sets follow directly from the narrative record.

As should be fairly evident, narratives can be used with forms. Specifically, a collection of narratives based on a series of classroom

TABLE 5.4 Principal Summary

Date Sent _____

Teacher _____ To Be Returned By _____

School _____ Principal _____ Date Returned _____

Conference Requested? _____

Grade or Subject _____ Period: Sept-Dec ☐ Jan-Mar ☐ Apr-June ☐

SATISFACTORY: Performance shows expected and desired professional qualities and growth.
UNSATISFACTORY: Performance shows weakness and deficiencies of such a serious nature that the teacher will not be recommended for reappointment unless substantial improvement is shown.
Note. Unsatisfactory ratings must have written documentation (see below).

I. ABSENCE: Illness _____ Professional _____ Personal _____ Late Arrival _____
a. Number of days in assignment: _____

	Satisfactory	*Unsatisfactory*
II. ADHERENCE TO:		
a. Written district policy.		
b. Building policy.		
c. District discipline policy.		

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	Satisfactory	*Unsatisfactory*
III. PUNCTUALITY WITH REPORTS		
IV. COOPERATION WITH PARENTS		
V. COOPERATION WITH OTHER SCHOOL PERSONNEL		

COMMENTS FOR ITEMS I THROUGH V OR OTHER DOCUMENTED INFORMATION

Teacher's Signature

Principal's Signature

Consulting Teacher's Signature

Date

SOURCE: Printed with permission from Dal Lawrence.

observations made during a fairly extended period of time (e.g., 3 months, 6 months) provide a very comprehensive "database" that can be used when completing the summary reports (see Table 5.1). The entire set of narratives can be stapled to the summary form as supporting data. In this way, it is possible to see progress (or the lack thereof) over time. Alternatively, a summary of the narratives can be prepared, focusing on the common strengths and weaknesses over time. These common strengths and weaknesses, then, can be placed on the Supporting Data Form (Table 5.3).

Conferencing

> *While self-reflection lies at the heart of professionalism, self-monitoring and assessment are difficult for teachers to carry out. . . . Consequently, teachers must rely on the reflection and feedback of others to gauge their effectiveness.*
>
> —McLaughlin (1986, p. 165)

In the foregoing quotation, McLaughlin identifies a fundamental paradox in teaching. If teachers are to become ever better at their craft, they need to reflect on what they do and do not do, on what they do well and what they do poorly, and on what they accomplish and fail to accomplish. Unfortunately, teachers generally are far too busy teaching to secure the data they need to engage in thoughtful reflection. This is where the consulting teacher comes into the picture. The consulting teacher brings to the conference the data that teachers need to assess their own strengths and weaknesses. Furthermore, consulting teachers bring to the conference the expertise that is needed to work with the teachers to come up with the most effective means to address the identified weaknesses (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995). Conferencing permits participating and consulting teachers to talk face to face about the PAR results and jointly develop improvement plans for the participating teachers when necessary.

Planning for Conferences

Conferencing is more than getting together to talk. Conferences have purpose, structure, and materials. The purpose of the confer-

ence parallels the purpose(s) of the PAR program. When the emphasis is on *review,* the purposes of the conference are to (a) present the PAR results, (b) assist the participating teacher in understanding the results, and (c) lay out for the participating teacher his or her options. When the emphasis is on *assistance,* the first two purposes are identical. The third purpose is to guide and support the participating teacher in formulating an improvement plan.

Having *a structure* for a conference is more important than having *the correct structure.* To this end, we would recommend that consulting teachers prepare a conference agenda such as the following:

1. Purpose for the conference
2. Summary of PAR results
3. Discussion of PAR results
4. Summary of major points and discussion of next steps

What *materials* would the consulting teacher bring to the conference? First, he or she would bring the written report. If the primary purpose of the conference is assistance, we prefer the use of narrative reports. If, on the other hand, the primary purpose is review, we prefer the use of forms, particularly summary forms and their accompanying supportive data form.

Second, the consulting teacher would bring his or her written analysis of the report. What does he or she see as the primary strengths and weaknesses? For the identified weaknesses, what are the professional development opportunities of which he or she is aware?

Third, if an improvement plan is in order, the consulting teacher would bring any forms related to the preparation of the improvement plan. An example of such a form is shown in Table 5.5. Table 5.5 contains four columns. In the first column, the domain and specific weakness within the domain are listed. This column provides the link between the improvement plan and the PAR results. In the second column, the specific professional development (PD) activities in which the teacher is expected to engage are listed. More will be said about PD activities later in this chapter. The third column contains the time frame during which the PD activities are to be completed and some improvement in the specified area of weakness

is expected to be shown. Last, the fourth column describes the evaluation component. What evidence will be collected to document improvement (or lack thereof) in each specific area of weakness? An example of how the respective cells of the table might be filled in is shown at the bottom of Table 5.5.

Conducting the Conference

Simply stated, conducting the conference means carrying out the agenda. The conference begins with the consulting teacher stating or clarifying the purpose of the conference.

Next, the PAR results are presented. In making the presentation, the emphasis should be on the data, not on the ratings. If the narrative format is used, for example, the participating teacher may be asked to read through the "Results of Formal Observation" section of Table 5.2, with the bottom two sections omitted. The consulting teacher's role at this point in the conference is to answer the participating teacher's questions about the results (e.g., "What does this mean?").

Once it becomes clear that the participating teacher understands the results as presented, the focus of the conference shifts to a discussion of the results. Here, the role of the consulting teacher is to raise questions that help the consulting teacher understand the participating teacher's interpretation of the results. Examples of appropriate questions would include the following:

- As you consider the results, what stands out in your mind?
- Is there anything that surprises you?
- In light of the results, what do you see as your major strengths?
- What seem to be your primary weaknesses?

At this point in the conference, the consulting teacher can share his or her interpretation of major strengths and weaknesses. One way of doing this is to summarize the strengths and weaknesses noted by the participating teacher and then elaborate and expand as necessary and appropriate.

TABLE 5.5 Improvement Plan Form

Domain/Specific Weakness	*PD Activity or Activities*	*Time Frame*	*Evaluation*

Example

Domain/Specific Weakness	*PD Activity or Activities*	*Time Frame*	*Evaluation*
Classroom Management Misbehavior often interferes with teaching and learning.	Read Frieberg & Brophy's *Beyond Behaviorism: Changing the Classroom Management Paradigm.* Participate in online discussion group at www.tappedin.org. Observe in Ms. Smith's and Mr. Jones' classrooms at least three times each during the fall semester.	8/1/2001—12/15/2001	Monthly observations made by consulting teacher; first observation should be made during first week of school in the fall. Improvement over time should be expected and noted. Postobservation conferences should serve a formative function.

The conference should conclude with a summary of major points (e.g., areas of agreement, points of contention) and a discussion of "next steps." What's going to happen next? Who is responsible for seeing that it happens? When are we going to meet again? What is the purpose of the next meeting? These are the types of questions that need to be addressed before the conference ends.

There are several suggestions for consulting teachers when conferencing with participating teachers. First, consulting teachers should not talk too much. Conferences should resemble discussions or dialogues, not lectures. Second, consulting teachers should not come across as having all the answers. Rather, they should have the right questions and be able to help participating teachers come up with reasonable answers to those questions. Third, be aware of the time. Generally, there is a lot to discuss in a rather limited amount of time. Consulting teachers need to move things along so that the agenda is completed. At the same time, however, the participating teacher should not feel rushed or hurried. This is a delicate balance.

There is one final point about conferencing and conferences that is absolutely critical. Without mutual trust and respect, the most carefully planned, well-conducted conference may yield little in the way of positive results. Unfortunately, there are no simple methods that can be used to develop mutual trust and respect. Suffice it to say that trust and respect begin with the consulting teacher and develop over time.

Ethical Issues: A Postscript

Who has access to the information contained in the reports? For what purposes can the information be used? These two questions lie at the heart of the ethical issues pertaining to all reports, written and oral. In a joint publication, AFT and NEA (1998) issued this statement: "It is essential that clear rules on allowable uses of documents, products, and communications arising from a [PAR] program be established and conveyed to all consulting and participating teachers" (p. 18). To this, we would add the following: Clear rules concerning the person or persons who do and do not have access to this information should also be established and communicated.

An example of a statement meeting both of these requirements is contained in the California Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) Program for Teachers legislation: "The results of a teacher's participation in the program shall be shared with the school principal or the teacher's supervisor, or both, as appropriate, for their use in evaluating the teacher pursuant to Section 44664" (State of California, 2000). Section 44664 reiterates the two primary purposes of PAR programs: improvement and removal.

In contrast to California, both access and use are restricted in the New York City Peer Intervention Program (PIP). Specifically, the PIP results "may not be subpoenaed or used in any way in the dismissal process" (NYC, 1995, p. 3). Confidentiality is a hallmark of PIP, with applications for assistance and all communication pertaining to PIP "kept completely confidential" (p. 35).

Regardless of the answers to the two aforementioned questions arrived at by an individual district or state, those answers must be clearly stated and shared with all concerned. Stating and adhering to ethical guidelines helps to build the trust and respect that is needed for PAR programs to be successful.

Using PAR Results for Improvement

> *PAR has the potential to significantly impact the quality of teaching if the program is part of a continuum of career development for teachers.*
>
> —Kairott (1999, p. 4)

To be blunt, PAR is an extremely costly way of trying to remove teachers from the workforce. If PAR programs are to be justified in terms of time, effort, and financial expense, the primary emphasis must be on improving teacher quality. And the key to improving teacher quality, as the foregoing quotation suggests, lies in the design and implementation of effective professional development programs. Fortunately, much is known about effective professional development (see, for example, Killion, 1999). Unfortunately, much of what passes for professional development is inconsistent with our knowledge (Gall, 1983; Little, 1981).

It is noteworthy that available descriptions of PAR programs are quite vague in this regard (as we have pointed out in Chapter 2). The California PAR legislation contains the following statement: "Sufficient staff development activities shall be provided to assist teachers to improve their teaching skills and knowledge" (State of California, 2000). What constitutes "sufficient staff development activities"? Likewise, the AFT/NEA (1998) joint statement includes a pot pourri of activities: "observing, modeling, sharing ideas and skills, and recommending materials for further study" (p. 3). The statement in the Toledo Plan booklet is equally vague: "A consultant may use any of a number of methods to assist the intern in meeting the goals set. For example: suggestions about other teaching methods, arrangements for videotaping, demonstration lessons, or observations of other teachers" (TPS, 1998, p. vii). Apparently, the hope is that one or more of these activities will strike a chord in the teacher, and improvement will occur. We prefer a more focused approach to professional development, as outlined in Table 5.5.

Principles of Effective Professional Development

The National Partnership for Excellence and Accountability in Teaching (NPEAT) has identified nine principles of effective professional development. The principles, shown in Table 5.6,

> focus on the form—not the content—of professional development. Whatever their content and goals, professional development activities that have [these] characteristics . . . are more likely to be effective than those that do not. The principles reflect a synthesis of current research and are influenced by and mapped closely on similar propositions by the U. S. Department of Education and the National Staff Development Council, as well as other organizations concerned with professional development. (NPEAT, 2000)

With respect to PAR programs, the content of the professional development activities comes, first, from the criteria that define good teaching and, second, from the performance of the teacher relative to those criteria.

TABLE 5.6 Principles of Effective Professional Development

1. The content of professional development (PD) focuses on what students are to learn and how to address the different problems students may have in learning the material.
2. Professional development should be based on analyses of the differences between (a) actual student performance and (b) goals and standards for student learning.
3. Professional development should involve teachers in the identification of what they need to learn and in the development of the learning experiences in which they will be involved.
4. Professional development should be primarily school-based and built into the day-to-day work of teaching.
5. Most professional development should be organized around collaborative problem solving (e.g., study groups, interdisciplinary teaching, collaborative action research).
6. Professional development should be continuous and ongoing, involving follow-up and support for further learning—including support from sources external to the school that can provide necessary resources and new perspectives.
7. Professional development should incorporate evaluation of multiple sources of information on (a) outcomes for students and (b) the instruction and other processes that are involved in implementing the lessons learned through professional development.
8. Professional development should provide opportunities to gain an understanding of the theory underlying the knowledge and skills being learned.
9. Professional development should be connected to a comprehensive change process focused on improving student learning.

SOURCE: Adapted from NPEAT (2000).

Although the reader can certainly read through the list contained in Table 5.6, three of the principles—Numbers 1, 3, and 6—are worthy of further comment. These three principles are most clearly aligned with the nature and purpose of PAR programs.

The first NPEAT principle states that the content of professional development focuses on student learning. This is certainly the intent of most PAR programs. The California legislation clearly states that "performance goals for individual teachers shall be in writing, clearly stated, and *aligned with pupil learning goals* [italics added]" (State of California, 2000). Similarly, the NYC PIP program focuses "solely on matters of instructional competence" (NYC, 1995, p. 41). Adhering to this first principle, then, not only provides a focus for the program but, equally important, establishes the boundaries of the program (i.e., topics, problems, and issues that lie *outside the scope* of the program).

The third NPEAT principle states that teachers should be involved in the identification of "what they need to learn and in the development of the learning experiences in which they will be involved." The key phrase here is "teachers should be involved;" it does not say, "teachers should determine." By working together, participating and consulting teachers determine the areas in which improvement is needed and the types of experiences and activities that would be most appropriate. Thus the conferencing aspect of PAR, described earlier, is essential to the application of this principle, as is the joint preparation of the improvement plan (see the first two columns of Table 5.5).

The sixth NPEAT principle asserts that professional development "should be continuous and on-going, involving follow-up and support for further learning." Simply stated, learning, whether by students or by teachers, takes time. Thus improvement plans must establish experiences and activities over some specified period of time (see "Time Frame" column in Table 5.5). Furthermore, the monitoring of teacher improvement resulting from the plan should be "continuous and on-going," should include follow-up meetings (e.g., post-observation conferences) and should serve a formative, rather than summative, function (that is, should provide "support for further learning"). (See our example in "Evaluation" column in Table 5.5.)

The Internet and Professional Development

One way to ensure the failure of professional development within the context of PAR programs is to give consulting teachers the responsibility of providing all necessary professional development activities and experiences for all participating teachers. Consulting teachers have a great deal to do—conducting observations, preparing reports, conferencing, working with participating teachers on improvement plans—without being responsible for providing all professional development for every participating teacher assigned to them. In terms of their role in professional development, we see consulting teachers as brokers as well as providers. Consulting teachers need to (a) be aware of a variety of professional development activities and experiences related to the domains, criteria, and indicators that define good teaching and (b) help participating teachers incorporate appropriate professional development activities and experiences into their improvement plans. Some of these activities and experiences may involve direct contact with the consulting teacher (i.e., consulting teacher as provider). Other activities and experiences, however, may be exclusive of the consulting teacher (i.e., consulting teacher as broker).

One increasingly useful source of professional development activities and experiences is the Internet. Table 5.7 contains a list of Internet sites that have potential to be used to support local professional development efforts. Several comments about the material contained in Table 5.7 are in order. First, the programs and resources on the TEAMS Distance Learning site are organized around five major areas: classroom management, personal development, professional growth, teaching and learning, and technology. This organization enables connections to be made with PAR domains and criteria fairly easily. Second, Teachscape is an intriguing site, in that the basis for teacher professional development is the case study. Teachers learn by observing videotapes of "teachers at work in real classrooms" and analyzing the videotapes from their own perspectives in terms of their own strengths and weaknesses. Third, most sites have numerous links to other sites and resources (e.g., Educational Development Resource, TeacherNet). Lightspan.com contains a cross-site search engine. Last, most sites incorporate bulletin

boards and chat rooms that promote "online communities" (e.g., TeacherNet, TAPPED IN).

Consistent with our belief in the importance of consulting teacher-as-broker, we would suggest that a group of consulting teachers, working together, use these Internet resources to prepare a catalog of professional development activities and experiences. This catalog would be organized around the domains and, perhaps, criteria that form the basis of the PAR program. Such a catalog could be used by each consulting teacher as he or she works with individual participating teachers in the preparation of their improvement plans.

Group Professional Development

What should we do when we find there are common weaknesses among participating teachers? There is, for example, extensive research evidence to suggest that beginning teachers, in general, have difficulty in the area of classroom management (see, for example, Berliner, 1994). Like investment adviser E. F. Hutton, we could approach this problem "one teacher at a time." However, this would be very inefficient. A more efficient, and quite likely more effective, way of dealing with the issue would be to engage in group professional development activities and experiences.

There are a variety of potentially useful group professional development activities and experiences: interdisciplinary teaming, joint curriculum development and critique, collaborative action research, and study groups (see Principle 5, Table 5.6). Although all of these have potential, we believe the latter two have the most potential in the context of PAR programs. Both help participating teachers focus on ways of solving their own problems. Both also help participating teachers see that all teachers have strengths that can be used to solve common problems.

Consulting teachers have three roles to play in group professional development efforts. First, they need to organize the groups. This may require communication across consulting teachers. Second, they need to provide the resources the groups need to carry out their work. Examples would include consultants, reading materials, and, of course, time. Third, they need, initially, to facilitate group discussion and interaction. Over time, they should be able to turn that function over to the groups themselves.

TABLE 5.7 Sample Internet Professional Development Sites

Name	*Address*	*Comments*
Educational Development Resource Centre	edu.polyu.edu.hk	Developed and maintained by the Hong Kong Polytechnic University, this site "provides over 500 links to resources for teacher development, student learning, staff development, educational research, Web teaching—and more."
Lightspan.com	www.lightspan.com	Emphasis on projects, tools and resources, and communication features for teachers, parents, and students. Opportunities for videoconferencing and distance learning activities. Cross-site search engine permits users to search for lesson plans, encyclopedia articles, and projects.
PBS TeacherSource	www.pbs.org/teachersource	Mission is to serve preK-12 educators. Contains more than 1,400 lessons and activities. Language arts, mathematics, history, and social studies lessons and activities are correlated with 90 sets of national and state curriculum standards.
TAPPED IN	www.tappedin.org	Developed and maintained by SRI International, the site is a "growing community of over 7500 K-16 teachers, staff, and researchers engaged in professional development programs and informal collaborative activities with colleagues."

(continued)

TABLE 5.7 Continued

Name	*Address*	*Comments*
TeacherNet	www.teachernet.com	"Online community for K-8 educators." Focuses on activities, resources, and information (including software reviews). Contains links to Education Week, National Center for Educational Statistics, and the Secretary of Education.
Teachscape	www.teachscape.com	The core of Teachscape is the teacher case study—a "rich, Internet-based video document of teachers at work in real classrooms." Fully integrated with the video component are many other online resources: lesson plans, assessment tools, examples of student work, and commentary from experienced practitioners.
TEAMS Distance Learning	teams.lacoe.edu	A service of the Los Angeles County Office of Education, TEAMS Distance Learning "brings exemplary learning opportunities to K-8 students, teachers, and parents . . . through nationally televised satellite broadcasts and the Internet." Wide variety of programs and resources organized around classroom management, personal development, professional growth, teaching and learning, and technology.

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Using PAR Results to Remove Teachers

What do we do with teachers who cannot or will not improve? Before we answer this question, let us consider two key aspects of it. First, we are dealing with improvement. The belief and hope is that continuous improvement will lead to the attainment of some prespecified level of performance that defines "good teaching." As long as teachers demonstrate improvement, then, we believe that assistance should continue to be provided. Obviously, we cannot wait forever for improvement to occur. Thus in many cases, some terminal time estimate for improvement is given. In California, for example, the following statement is made:

> It is anticipated that a Participating Teacher will stay in the PAR Program for no more than twelve (12) months. However, participating teachers may, under special circumstances, remain in the Program for a total of eighteen (18) months after a majority vote of the Panel. (State of California, 2000)

Second, there are two quite different reasons teachers do not improve. They may lack the ability to improve or they simply may not wish to put in the effort needed to improve. Although the reasons may be different, the result is the same: They *did not* improve, even after a sufficient amount of time, effort, and resources were expended to help them do so. Consequently, something must be done. Generally, there are two options. The first is to counsel them to leave teaching. This is the preferred option, and in some situations (e.g., the New York City Peer Intervention), it is the only option. The second option is to terminate their employment. This requires that the dismissal procedures in place in the district be followed.

Counseling Teachers

Counseling teachers requires more than simply advising them to find employment elsewhere. The full range of duties and responsibilities involved in this activity is nicely summarized in the PIP (NYC, 1995). One of the positions included as a part of this program

is the Alternative Careers Liaison. The person holding this title is responsible for

- Training and assisting teachers with job-seeking skills, including interviewing and resume writing
- Administering, scoring, and offering feedback on various interest and skills inventories
- Maintaining current listings of job openings
- Using initiative and personal contact to generate public- and private-sector employment opportunities for teachers
- Communicating with employment counselors of private employment agencies and services
- Coordinating the needs of clients with available employment resources, including job-related training and continuing education
- Overseeing and personally assisting teachers' transition into alternative positions

Quite clearly, the decision to opt for counseling teachers out of the profession should not be made lightly.

Terminating Employment

> *In a peer review process, the local union shares responsibility with the school district for reviewing teacher performance and making recommendations to the district administration about continuing employment of teachers receiving peer assistance. The final employment decision concerning continued employment, however, is made by the district administration and the board of education.*
>
> —AFT/NEA (1998, p. 2)

The decision to terminate employment should be the last option. That is, if there is no evidence of improvement and if the

teacher will not leave the profession voluntarily, then there is no option but to move toward dismissal.

The most desirable time to move toward dismissal is before the teacher has been awarded tenure. This is desirable for two reasons. First, from the teacher's perspective, there is minimal commitment to the profession and, generally, the teacher is of an age at which the transition from one job to another is easier. Second, from the school district's perspective, the nontenured or provisional contract teacher has fewer legal rights. In the Toledo Plan, for example, a first-year teacher may appeal the decision; however, if the review panel confirms the recommendation of nonrenewal or termination, the Toledo Federation of Teachers will not process a grievance contesting the nonrenewal or termination on behalf of the teacher (Lawrence, personal correspondence, 1999). Consequently, a long legal hassle can be avoided.

For tenured or continuing contract teachers, the recommendation of the PAR governing board to terminate a teacher is forwarded to the appropriate person or office in the school district. In Toledo, for example, the recommendation is sent to the Office of Human Resources, with copies to the district administration and the teachers' union. Representation and due process rights and procedures are available for tenured or continuing contract teachers who are subject to termination (Lawrence, personal correspondence, 1999).

A Closing Comment

No matter how carefully a PAR program is designed and implemented, its success in improving teacher quality depends on how well the results are communicated and used. The results must be communicated clearly, both in writing and during conferences, in an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect. Furthermore, the results must be incorporated into an improvement plan that is jointly developed by participating and consulting teachers. The plan must include appropriate and specific professional development activities, a reasonable time line, and must be monitored on a regular basis both to see that the plan is being implemented and that improvement in teaching is occurring. In combination, clear com-

munication of PAR results and sound professional development based on those results hold the key to the success of PAR programs.

Notes

1. Obviously, the results can be placed in a teacher's file with nothing else done with them. We would consider this a "nonuse," not a use.

2. Alternatively, they might be known as *areas, dimensions,* or *performance criteria.* For consistency reasons, we shall use the term *domain* throughout this chapter.

3. Toledo (Ohio) includes three rating categories: outstanding, satisfactory, and unsatisfactory. For most of the uses of PAR programs, however, we believe that two categories are sufficient.

4. Toledo's Teacher Summary Evaluation Report, for example, contains the following five recommendations for nontenured teachers: recommended for first 1-year contract, recommended for second 1-year contract, recommended for initial 4-year contract, recommended for third 1-year contract, and not recommended for reappointment.

5. Like deer, forms seem to travel in pairs or groups.

6. In some PAR systems, the term *weakness* is not used. Rather, a more palatable label, such as *areas in need of improvement* is used. In this chapter, we shall call them what they are; modifications can be made as needed to make them more socially acceptable.

7. We will discuss the connection between the Supporting Data Form and professional development later in this chapter.

8 An interesting question to raise is whether this domain is appropriate in PAR programs. By raising this question,we are not suggesting that criteria within the "Professional Responsibilities" domain are unimportant. Rather, we are wondering whether they are directly linked with improved teacher quality in the classroom.

6

Best Practices

Thus far, we have discussed the origins of PAR programs and examined in some detail the underlying concepts, their primary components, and their governance structures. We have described the key players in the PAR process in terms of their roles, relationships, and responsibilities. We have paid particular attention to the challenges involved in setting criteria, establishing standards, and gathering data, as well as the reporting and use of the results of these programs. Now comes the ultimate challenge! Using our previous discussion as background, the purpose of this chapter is to offer a few recommendations with respect to initiating and sustaining PAR. Although it is both tempting and relatively easy at this point to offer a plethora of recommendations, we confine ourselves to what we believe to be a reasonable number. The recommendations we offer are consistent with what we know about best practice and at the same time they are workable within existing schools and school districts.

The Purposes of PAR Programs

Our first recommendation concerns the purpose(s) of PAR programs. As mentioned in Chapter 3, existing PAR programs have a number of stated as well as hidden or shadow purposes. The two most commonly stated purposes are (a) to assist teachers who are

new to the profession and (b) to intervene with veteran teachers who are experiencing difficulties in carrying out their routine instructional duties in the classroom. As we reconsidered these stated purposes, we became aware of the fact that they resembled "means" rather than "ends." In other words, "assist" and "intervene" are what PAR programs do (the means), but what are the primary goals of PAR programs (the ends)?

We found that part of the answer to this "goal" question lay in some of hidden or shadow purposes of the programs. PAR programs were intended to raise standards for expected performance in the teaching profession, improve teacher retention rates, remove incompetent teachers from the teaching ranks, and build more fully integrated, effective staff development programs for teachers. In other words, perhaps the real goal of PAR programs is improved teacher quality.

Why do we need improved teacher quality? Because improved teacher quality is the key to improving the overall quality of education we provide our students. Better teachers teach better! And when teachers teach better, students learn more.

At this point, we came to the realization that primary goal of PAR programs is (and must be) to improve the quality of instruction that teachers provide their students. This is undoubtedly why the California PAR legislation focuses attention on criteria and goals that are clearly aligned with pupil learning. If PAR programs are to be judged successful, our attempts to assist teachers who are new to the profession and to intervene with veteran teachers who are experiencing difficulties in their classrooms must contribute substantially to improved instructional quality.

Although it may be more difficult to make the case that improving relationships between teacher unions and school district management, recognizing and supporting new leadership roles for teachers, or helping to bring about recognition of teaching as a true profession link directly to the improvement of instruction, it would be difficult to deny that all of these can have at least an indirect impact on instructional quality. And even if it can not be demonstrated convincingly that these last three shadow purposes of PAR programs contribute indirectly to improving the quality of instruction, they may be worthwhile goals in their own right. But they are not the primary goal of PAR programs. PAR programs must help teachers so they can better help their students.

The Target Audiences of PAR Programs

Our second recommendation concerns the teachers who should be served by PAR programs. Although most PAR programs are designed to serve both veteran and novice teachers, the emphasis should be placed squarely on serving teachers who are new to the profession. In earlier chapters, we discussed the various categories of teachers who could be served and likely benefit from PAR programs. Although a case could be made to serve teachers in all of the categories, limited available resources make it necessary for most school districts to prioritize when it comes to providing these services. We must keep in mind that PAR programs are relatively expensive to operate (Chapter 2). We recognize that it is possible to serve a greater number of teachers simply by increasing the client caseload of consulting teachers. However, an undesirable consequence of this action could be the dilution of services to the point where the program is not as effective as it could, should, or needs to be.

Why emphasize novice teachers? Several reasons can be given. First, many new teachers need help. Some need a great deal of help. No teacher springs from the head of Zeus as a full-blown professional. Most, if not all, new teachers start their teaching careers with more deficiencies than they care to admit. There is no shame in starting a teaching career with deficiencies; teaching is an extremely complex profession requiring extensive training and practice before a reasonable level of proficiency can be attained. Unfortunately for new teachers and their students, a great deal of the required practice occurs on the job. Not only does this practice occur on the job, it generally occurs in isolation from one's colleagues. Consequently, it is difficult to get the amount and quality of feedback new teachers need to correct existing deficiencies and to eventually become highly proficient teachers. To the degree that new teachers fail to receive the necessary support they need as they are making the transition from training to practice, their development will be delayed.

Second, PAR programs are a viable means for inducting new teachers into the profession. Effective induction as a part of PAR programs leads to certain desirable outcomes. Consistent with one of the shadow purposes of PAR programs, effective induction can reduce new teacher turnover. Effective induction also can help new teachers become proficient at earlier stages in their careers and in

extreme cases where new teachers may not be suitable for teaching careers, remove them from the profession before they achieve tenured status.

A third reason for the emphasis on novice teachers is that the positive long-term impact on instructional improvement is much greater for these teachers than for any other group. Novice teachers enter PAR programs with few "bad habits" and a self-recognized "great deal to learn." Thus they are more likely to respond favorably to such programs. Furthermore, new teachers have a longer "life span" within the profession and, perhaps, within a particular school district. Consequently, there are greater opportunities for a greater "return on investment" with novice teachers.

Last, and related to our third reason, is the benefit of what might be termed "early intervention." By providing support and assistance to new teachers during their initial years of service, a school district can significantly reduce the number of teachers who are not able to perform up to expectations later in their careers. In a sense, providing PAR programs for beginning teachers is much like flossing one's teeth. When asked by a patient, "Do I need to floss all my teeth," one dentist replied, "No, you only have to floss the ones you want to keep!" PAR programs can be just as effective as a preventative for the ills of teaching as flossing is for gum disease.

In summary, although PAR programs are relatively expensive on an annual basis, programs targeted toward novice teachers can be cost-effective over the long haul. They can save resources in several ways. They can reduce the costs associated with good teachers leaving the profession prematurely. They can be an effective final screen for excluding those teachers who are clearly unsuited for the profession. They can redirect funds presently being expended on ineffective professional development programs to provide a personalized and intensive support system for beginning teachers that is likely to insulate them against failure at later stages in their careers.

The Governance of PAR Programs

PAR programs should be jointly governed by teachers and administrators in a shared-governance arrangement that recognizes and

respects the rights and responsibilities of both parties to work together to improve instructional quality. It is not surprising that joint governance of PAR programs is the norm throughout the country where such programs exist. There is good reason for the existence of these partnership arrangements between teacher organizations and school district management. Simply stated, peer assistance and peer review could not work any other way.

Performance evaluation of teachers has long been widely recognized as a management right and responsibility. There is, therefore, a legitimate need as well as an expectation for management to play a major role in any program that is designed to evaluate the performance of school district employees. On the other hand, teachers are the most qualified and professionally appropriate sources of leadership available in schools today (see, for example, Pellicer & Anderson, 1995). They alone are able to make informed professional judgments about the quality of instruction provided by their teaching colleagues. Furthermore, teachers are far and away the best qualified and most appropriate people to provide the professional support and assistance that is needed to help their colleagues improve the quality of instruction they provide.

It makes a great deal of sense, therefore, for those who have management responsibilities and those who have teaching responsibilities to come together and share the responsibility for creating and governing PAR programs. In this way, the rights and responsibilities of all concerned are more likely to be respected and protected. Furthermore, the special talents and skills from both groups can be used to make these programs successful.

The central feature of a joint-governance arrangement should be a committee, board, or panel of from 7 to 15 members that includes carefully selected representatives from administration (management) and teaching (labor). To the extent possible, teachers should have a slight majority on the governing board. This feature serves to build a higher level of trust in the program among teachers while at the same time emphasizing the responsibility of teachers to police their own profession. The fact that teachers have not had the means in the past to do so has long been a knock on their many, often futile, attempts over the years to truly professionalize teaching.

To bring additional checks and balances to the governance issue, we also support a provision that requires any decision of the

governing board to have more than a simple majority of votes cast. For example, if there are seven members on a board, then a vote on an issue could not be decided by a four-to-three vote but would require a vote of at least five to two. In this way, decisions would never be split in such a way that all the teacher representatives would be on one side of an issue and all the management representatives would be on the other side of the same issue. Successful resolution of issues would require at least some teachers and administrators to vote in the same way. The goal here is to promote the building of consensus among members of the governing board. The more that governing boards can build consensus on issues affecting PAR programs, the greater the likelihood that the resulting decisions will be carefully thought out and appropriate, given the prevailing circumstances.

We favor rotating the chair of the governing board between administrators and teachers on an annual basis. We also recommend a staggered service term arrangement so that the complete board does not turn over every 3 or 4 years. This initially requires some manipulation of the term of service (e.g., approximately one half of the original board will serve for 4 rather than 3 years).

Although there are a number of issues that may come under the purview of the governing board, we believe that the following should be included in any basic list of governing board responsibilities:

- Plan programs to meet the needs of program participants.
- Ensure fair treatment of all participating parties.
- Select consulting teachers.
- Receive and review reports and recommendations of consulting teachers.
- Accept or reject the recommendations of consulting teachers (including recommendations for interventions).
- Make recommendations concerning participants' employment status.
- Receive and act on appeals from participating teachers.
- Ensure that adequate records are maintained.
- Monitor and evaluate program effectiveness.

Last, there are fundamental issues that need to be ironed out between management and the appropriate teacher union or association before the governing board is selected. Examples include the purpose(s) of the program, the composition of the governing board, compensation for board members, the service term of board members, the orientation of new members, and the categories of teachers (e.g., novice, veteran) who will be included in the program. Day-to-day operational issues should be placed in the hands of a program director.

Criteria, Goals, and Standards

PAR programs can be termed *criterion-referenced, standards-based,* or *criterion-referenced and standards-based.* These terms apply because judgments about teacher quality are made based on criteria and standards, not relative to the performance of other teachers. It is logical, therefore, that PAR programs are only as good as their criteria and only as rigorous as their standards.

The criteria should be relatively few in number and clearly related to improved instructional quality. By relatively few in number, we would suggest an upper bound of an even dozen. Of the large number of criteria that could be included, we strongly recommend selecting those that are the most clearly related to improved instructional quality. This recommendation is consistent with what we believe to be the primary goal of PAR programs.

What are good sources of criteria? One source is existing PAR programs. Criteria from these programs can be examined, and common criteria can be identified. This is the approach we used to arrive at the set of six criteria we included in Chapter 3 (see also Table 3.2).

Summaries or syntheses of classroom research studies provide a second source of criteria. One excellent example is a small book prepared by Jere Brophy (1999). Based on an extensive review of classroom research over about four decades, Brophy arrived at 12 principles of effective teaching. These principles are shown in Table 6.1. Brophy's principles are particularly useful in developing PAR criteria because they are written in terms of student learning. For example, students learn best within cohesive and caring learning communities (Principle 1). The implication is that teachers should create cohesive and caring learning communities. Similarly, students

should engage in learning activities productively. Therefore teachers should provide whatever assistance students need to enable them to engage in learning activities productively (Principle 8). In light of current PAR programs and existing research evidence, it is fairly easy to arrive at a set of defensible criteria.

Because of the limit on the number of criteria, we would suggest excluding criteria that are tangentially related to improved instructional quality. An example—one frequently found in PAR programs—is "professional responsibilities." By excluding "professional responsibilities," we are not suggesting that being professionally responsible is unimportant. In fact, being professionally responsible might be critically important to the overall functioning and welfare of the school. We *are* suggesting that of all the criteria we have examined, "professional responsibilities" is one that is least likely to affect instructional quality. Thus although "professional responsibilities" might well belong in a more traditional teacher evaluation system, it probably does not belong in a PAR program. In support of our position, we can point to the fact that when "professional responsibilities" is included as a criterion in a PAR program, the responsibility for evaluating teachers relative to that criterion is given to the building administrator or supervisor.

Also because of the limit on the number of criteria to include in a PAR program, the criteria tend to be somewhat general. Consequently, there is a need to define each criterion more clearly. As we pointed out in Chapter 3, indicators serve this function. However, we believe that indicators should serve only this function. That is, data should not be collected on individual indicators nor should standards be established for them. Rather, indicators should "indicate" what data need to be collected with respect to the criteria. In this regard, we prefer the Toledo Plan to the Poway Program.

Should goals be established? If they are, in virtually all cases, they should be established within the context of the PAR criteria. Furthermore, they should be based on available data pertaining to the teacher's current performance levels relative to the criteria. Suppose, for example, one of the criteria in a PAR program is the ability to create, maintain, and manage a warm yet businesslike classroom learning environment. Before a teacher should be allowed to set a goal relative to this criterion, there should be data that the teacher, in fact, needs to improve in that area.

TABLE 6.1 Principles of Effective Teaching

1. Students learn best within cohesive and caring learning communities.
2. Students learn more when most of the available time is allocated to curriculum-related activities and the classroom management system emphasizes maintaining their engagement in those activities.
3. Students learn more when all components of the curriculum are aligned to create a cohesive program for accomplishing purposes and goals.
4. Teachers can prepare students for learning by providing an initial structure to clarify intended outcomes and cue desired learning strategies.
5. To facilitate meaning, learning, and retention, teachers should explain content clearly, emphasizing its structure and connections.
6. Teachers should ask questions that engage students in sustained discourse structured around powerful ideas.
7. Students need sufficient opportunities to practice and apply what they are learning and to receive improvement-oriented feedback.
8. Teachers should provide whatever assistance students need to enable them to engage in learning activities productively.
9. Teachers should model and instruct students in learning and self-regulation strategies.
10. Students often benefit from working in pairs or small groups to construct understandings or help one another master skills.
11. Teachers should use a variety of formal and informal assessment methods to monitor student progress toward learning goals.
12. Teachers should establish and follow through on appropriate expectations for learning outcomes.

What about standards? Who should set them? How should they be set? Should they be explicit or implicit? Standards should be established by or under the auspices of the PAR governing board. The board should work toward achieving consensus on the standards. If complete consensus is not possible, a vote should be taken with more than a simple majority needed for endorsement (see our discussion of governance earlier in this chapter). We advocate the use of both explicit and implicit standards. Explicit standards should be set for individual criteria; implicit standards should be used to make the overall judgment. It must be emphasized that use of implicit standards means that the board (or some subset of the board) will meet to examine PAR results on a case-by-case basis. We believe this is worth the time and effort and is far superior to a preset overall standard.

Data in PAR Programs

Within the context of PAR programs, the term *data* refers to what teachers say and do (or, in some cases, do not say or do). Both the review and assistance components of PAR programs require this type of behavioral data. Review requires it because behavioral data form the basis of the needed documentation should termination be pursued. Documentation containing general statements just doesn't cut it. Proper documentation requires statements such as "The teacher did this" or "The teacher said that." Assistance requires it because teachers can only improve their instructional quality by changing the way they behave in the classroom; that is, changing what they say or what they do. They might set up their classrooms differently. They may explain things more clearly. They may ask questions differently. They may relate to students differently. Setting up, explaining, asking questions, and relating to students are all behaviors. Professional development programs may help teachers gain important knowledge, but if teachers cannot put that knowledge into practice, they cannot alter the quality of instruction they provide their students.

In general, PAR programs need more systematic data collection than typically is done. We would offer two suggestions in this regard. First, some structure should be in place for classroom obser-

vations. By structure, we are not advocating a return to the days of behavioral checklists or structured observation forms (although these instruments should certainly not be eliminated out of hand). Rather, we are talking about the structure that is provided by the PAR criteria. If narrative records are made, the notes can be organized around the criteria (or, if need be, the domains). Simply noting the sequences of classroom events on a blank sheet of paper, without concern for the criteria, is problematic. Without a linkage between data and criteria, the data may be quite descriptive, but they are not very useful in the context of PAR programs.

Second, consulting teachers should be trained in observational techniques. This training should emphasize both what to look and listen for and how to record what is seen and heard. If appropriate indicators have been written for each criterion, they provide a useful starting point in this regard. Consider, for example, the following indicators included in the Toledo Plan:

- Provide for cooperative learning situations in research projects.
- Use summaries and reviews in lesson presentation effectively.
- Assign lessons that are clear and definite to the student.
- Use effective oral expression in a well-modulated voice.
- Vary instructional techniques to allow for individual differences of students.

In all cases, the observer would know what to look and listen for while in the classroom. Inferences would be needed (e.g., what is "clear and definite?" what is "well-modulated?"), but the focus of the observation is quite clear.

Raising the issue of inference leads to an important, perhaps critical, point. It is precisely because inferences need to be made that consulting teachers, rather than building administrators, must conduct the observations, engage in conferences with participating teachers, and assist participating teachers in their improvement efforts. If the focus of the observation is on the extent to which the classroom is quiet or if observers are expected to record the number of questions asked by the teacher, then building administrators are "up to the task." But when the focus shifts to the appropriateness of

the activities in which students are engaged (even though they are noisy) or the relevance of the questions to the overall instructional objective, then consulting teachers are needed.

Thus far in this section, we have discussed only classroom observation. Our emphasis on classroom observation is consistent with the frequency of its use in existing PAR programs. However, we would be remiss if we did not suggest that classroom observation should be placed in the context of additional sources of data. Teacher interviews can provide useful data on teachers' beliefs, intentions, and plans. For example, talking with a teacher prior to an observation can provide a useful context for the observation. Having teachers analyze videotapes of other teachers' classrooms can provide useful data on teachers' knowledge (of classrooms, students, and subject matter) and problem-solving abilities. Interviews and videotape analyses provide insights into the unseen world of the teacher. In combination, things "seen and unseen" are likely to provide the most useful information about teacher quality.

Consulting Teachers

Teacher participants in PAR programs should be served by carefully selected, well-trained consulting teachers who are released full-time from their regular teaching assignments to carry out their responsibilities with a reasonable number of teacher participants. As we have said several times, the success of PAR programs rests largely on the backs of the consulting teachers. The consulting teacher is the direct link between the governing board and the individual teacher in the classroom. It is the consulting teacher who must have the requisite knowledge, experience, and skills to make the PAR program functional to the extent that expected results can be achieved. For all these reasons, a careful selection process for consulting teachers should be established. That process should be based on an explicit set of appropriate criteria and standards for service as a consulting teacher. Last, there should be ways to determine whether an applicant meets or exceeds the standards on the identified criteria.

Based on our review of existing PAR programs and numerous discussions with individuals who are intimately involved with

those programs, we believe the following is a minimal set of criteria for a successful candidate for the position of consulting teacher:

- At least 5 years of successful teaching experience
- Recognition as an outstanding teacher
- Demonstrated knowledge of subject matter, teaching, and teaching the subject matter
- Excellent oral and written communications skills
- Outstanding interpersonal skills

To determine whether prospective consulting teachers possess these qualities, the governing board should collect data from several sources. Possible sources include written credentials (including professional resumes and performance evaluations), classroom observations, recommendations from supervisors and teaching colleagues, personal interviews, and simulations and role-playing exercises. The use of multiple sources of data increases the chances of selecting excellent consulting teachers.

Once consulting teachers are selected, they should receive some concentrated training to help them carry out their role. Teachers typically do not have a great deal of experience in collecting data, evaluating the performance of their colleagues based on the data, or providing assistance to their colleagues. They may not understand the legal or procedural requirements of the program (e.g., the need for documentation, the preparation of written reports). There is a great deal that most consulting teachers will have to learn. Some school districts have arrangements with universities to provide needed training for their consulting teachers through graduate course work. Others, particularly large districts, choose to handle training internally. The simple fact is that training is necessary, however it is done.

Once consulting teachers are functioning in their roles, they should then be provided with additional opportunities to ask questions, gain addition knowledge, and improve their skills. An excellent way to provide these opportunities is through rather frequent, planned meetings with other consulting teachers. These occasions can provide consulting teachers with the professional support they need as well as opportunities to share their successes and failures and to get some expert help in dealing with difficult cases. These

interactions between and among consulting teachers should occur on at least a monthly basis.

There should be term limits for service as a consulting teacher. This is necessary, we believe, to maintain the credibility of consulting teachers with their colleagues as being first and foremost teachers. When there are indefinite terms of service or terms longer than 3 or 4 years, you run the risk of stamping consulting teachers with the label of administrator or quasi-administrator, thereby potentially damaging the integrity of the program. After a term of 3 or 4 years, consulting teachers should return to the primary assignments as classroom teachers and not be considered for administrative appointments for a reasonable period of time.

Last, if consulting teachers are to be effective, they must be released full-time from their teaching responsibilities and be given a reasonable workload. Beginning teachers, as well as teachers who are experiencing serious difficulties in meeting their teaching responsibilities in the classroom, need a great deal of intensive and focused support if they are to become effective, fully functioning professionals in their own right. By giving consulting teachers unreasonably heavy workloads, districts can save some money in the short term, but the programs will not achieve the desired results in the long term. A reasonable caseload for a full-time consulting teacher would be no more than from 10 to 12 teachers, that is, novice and veteran teachers combined.

One other comment about consulting teachers is in order. Because consulting teachers may be perceived as entering a domain previously owned by administrators, the proper relationship between consulting teachers and building administrators within PAR programs must be addressed. We believe this is a responsibility of the governing board. Although part of this responsibility can be fulfilled by means of written policy, the complete fulfillment of this responsibility likely requires a series of face-to-face meetings, during which the policy is presented and questions are answered.

PAR Reports

Both written reports and conferences should be a part of the PAR program. Written reports should have three interrelated compo-

nents: summary of results, supporting data, and an improvement plan (if necessary). The PAR criteria should serve as the linking mechanism across the components.

We would suggest that a standardized form be used to summarize PAR results. The focal point of the form should be the PAR criteria. We prefer narrative accounts of supporting data. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the narrative accounts should contain descriptions of what teachers said and did during the classroom observation. To the extent possible, these narrative accounts should capture the sequence of classroom events while at the same time reflecting the PAR criteria. One way of accomplishing this seemingly difficult task is to write the events in chronological order, placing appropriate criteria [in brackets] in the written description. An example is shown in Table 6.2.

Ideally, after three or four observations, a set of summary forms and narrative accounts of supporting data would have been prepared. We say ideally because we are acutely aware that multiple observations within a fairly short time period are difficult to achieve in light of existing resources. At the same time, however, we also are acutely aware of the unreliability of data obtained from a single observation. Therefore, we will continue our discussion assuming that multiple observations have been conducted.

The summary forms and narrative accounts become the data to be discussed during the consulting teacher-participating teacher conference. In preparing for the conference, the consulting teacher should have a good understanding of the data, to the extent that strengths and weaknesses have been identified. At the beginning of the conference, the participating teacher should read through the material, asking clarification questions and looking for strengths and weaknesses. The two sets of strengths and weaknesses (those of the consulting teacher and those of the participating teacher) can be compared and a common set produced.

The common weaknesses become the basis for the improvement plan. If there are no such weaknesses, there likely is no need for an improvement plan. Improvement plans should include the specific weaknesses to be addressed, the professional development activities and experiences to be completed, the time frame, and the ways in which the effectiveness of the activities and experiences in overcoming the weaknesses are to be determined. The improvement

TABLE 6.2 A Sample Narrative Record of a Classroom Observation

As the students entered the classroom, they went directly to the seats and began working on the anagram the teacher had written on the board (GREDYAT). Two students entered talking a bit loudly. The teacher went up to them, told them they were disturbing their classmates, and asked them to take their seats and begin working. [Efficient classroom routines][a]

After about 5 minutes, the teacher directed a general question to the class. "How many of you figured out the anagram?" All but five of the students raised their hands. The teacher called on one of the students, who responded correctly: "TRAGEDY." She followed up with two questions, "In literature, what do we mean by tragedy? What makes a story or play a tragedy?" [Skill in questioning techniques] A whole-class discussion of the concept of tragedy followed, lasting about 5 minutes. The teacher led but did not dominate the discussion. Several times, the discussion proceeded without direct teacher input. [Oral communication skills]

Following the discussion, the teacher gave directions to the class for the next activity. Working in pairs, the students were to write a 1-minute tragedy to be performed at the Short Attention Span Theater. Their tragedies must have the key components of a tragedy but could be about any topic they wished. They would

plan is prepared (or at least sketched out), logistical issues are resolved (e.g., next steps), and the conference ends. Depending on the potential uses of the PAR data, it might be wise for the consulting teacher to write a brief summary of the conference, including the steps to be taken in the future.

PAR and Professional Development

Consistent with virtually every PAR program we reviewed, we believe that PAR programs must be conceptualized as an integral

have 30 minutes to complete the task. [Skill in making assignments] As the students worked on their 1-minute tragedies, the teacher circulated around the room, stopping to discuss progress from time to time. [Effective interaction with students]

At the end of the 30-minute period, the teacher got the class back together. She went to each pair of students, having one student select a folded piece of paper from a bowl. The numbers on the pieces of paper indicated the order in which the tragedies would be presented. [Efficient classroom routine] She told the students they could either read or act out their tragedies.

The students either read or acted out their tragedies in the proper order. Following each "presentation," the teacher asked the class: "What makes that a tragedy?" "Is there anything missing?" "What could they have done differently?" "How could they have improved their tragedy?" [Skill in questioning techniques] After all presentations were made, the teacher instructed the students to revise their tragedies in line with the comments and suggestions they heard. [Skill in making assignments]. The bell rang, and class was dismissed.

SOURCE: a. The criteria in brackets were taken from the Toledo Plan (TPS, 1998).

part of ongoing professional development. At the same time, however, we question the soundness of professional development efforts that are as casual as many seem to be and the feasibility of professional development efforts that place such a burden on individual consulting teachers as most seem to do.

What should be the role of the consulting teacher in professional development related to PAR programs? We believe that, as a group, consulting teachers should be a fount of knowledge about available, appropriate, useful, and effective professional development activities and experiences. Consulting teachers need to meet on a regular basis to discuss professional development, specifically newly discovered ideas, materials, and opportunities. In this regard, we

would encourage consulting teachers to familiarize themselves with the wide variety of resources currently on the Internet (see Table 5.7). Consistent with our discussion in Chapter 5, we recommend the preparation of a professional development booklet organized around the PAR criteria and prepared by consulting teachers.

Individually, consulting teachers should serve as service providers and as brokers. As service providers, however, we suggest they consider the identification of reasonably sized groups of participating teachers (e.g., three or four) with common weaknesses. In this way, the needed assistance can be provided more efficiently. In addition, participating teachers can begin to learn from one another. Emotionally, they can see they are not the only ones with these problems. As brokers, consulting teachers would be responsible for putting participating teachers in contact with professional development resources (e.g., people, materials, courses). During conferences with participating teachers, consulting teachers should regularly monitor the use of the resources by each participating teacher and the participating teacher's reaction to them (i.e., are they helpful?). The feedback received from participating teachers should be used to make revisions in the professional development resources that are made available to them.

PAR and Continued Employment

Ideally, PAR programs will be so effective that all teachers will perform at a level that warrants continued employment. Practically, however, there will be teachers who are unable or unwilling to improve sufficiently so that this acceptable level is achieved. What should we do with these teachers? Consistent with the New York City PIP, our first attempt should be to advise them to leave teaching and consider alternative career opportunities. If they do not accept and act on this advice, we then must move toward dismissal. As educators, our primary responsibility is to our students, not our colleagues. Any move toward dismissal, however, must be consistent with relevant district policies, including collective bargaining agreements when they are present.

Funding PAR Programs

Our primary recommendation with respect to funding is that we must be honest about the cost involved in establishing and maintaining a PAR program and find sufficient money to cover the costs. Underestimating the cost of a PAR program or failing to provide sufficient funds to support the program almost certainly dooms it to failure. As we saw in Chapter 2, even PAR programs of moderate scope are quite expensive. And our cost estimates did not include several of the items mentioned in the NYC (1995) brochure (e.g., office space, resource library, audiotape and videotape recorders).

Our historical landscape in education is littered with overregulated, underfunded programs. We can ill afford to allow PAR programs to become one more casualty on that landscape. If PAR programs are important and if they are to fulfill the potential that many educators believe they have, sufficient money must be made available to support them.

Dos and Don'ts

Dal Lawrence of the Toledo Public Schools is generally regarded as the father of PAR programs. In preparing this book, we wrote to Mr. Lawrence asking him a set of questions. He was kind enough to share his knowledge, expertise, and insights. One thing he sent along with his return letter was a list of "Dos and Don'ts." Part of this list is reproduced in Table 6.3.

The reader will note that we are generally consistent with Mr. Lawrence's suggestions. Nonetheless, there are a few on which we would like to comment. Housing consulting teachers in a single location and providing them the needed resources is an excellent idea, one we have not addressed at all. The more we can get consulting teachers to work together, the better we believe the PAR program will be.

Holding consulting teachers to a high standard of performance (Do # 5 and Do #6) is absolutely essential. Far too often, accountability means holding other people responsible for things that we are unwilling to be responsible for ourselves. If improvement in instruc-

TABLE 6.3 A List of Dos and Don'ts

1. DO house consultants in a single location if possible. This will increase inter-rater reliability and allow for on-the-job training.
2. DO equip the location with computers, phones, copy machines, and file cabinets.
3. DO govern the program with a joint union-management board. Rotate the chairmanship between teachers and administrators.
4. DO pay attention to hiring consulting teachers. It's not easy to fire someone. Working with adults is different than working with children. And consultants must be able to write.
5. DO require every consulting teacher to report on every intern [beginning teacher] and intervention case [veteran teacher] to the governing board. Quality assurance costs money and time.
6. DO make the reporting day(s) stressful for the consulting teacher. Their work must be held to a high standard. They get plenty of recognition and support the rest of the year.

tional quality is our goal, accountability must mean that we are all in this together. Therefore, if participating teachers are expected to achieve high standards of performance, consulting teachers must be expected to do likewise.

Operating PAR programs *is* a hands-on process (Don't #9). We cannot design a PAR program and assume that it is running the way it should. Rather, there must be frequent monitoring of PAR programs, with adjustments made as needed and warranted. This is particularly true with newly established programs. Initiating a PAR program is, in essence, a trial-error-and-revision process.

Initially, we had difficulty with the "two fingers in the stew" recommendation (Don't #10). On further reflection, we saw this as

7. DO expect an employment decision for interns at the end of two semesters. That's long enough. Employment decisions tend to be made at the end of whatever time period is established.
8. DO have an appeal procedure for even the worst performers. They can go to court, too.
9. DON'T assume that a PAR program on paper is the PAR program you have. This is a hands-on process, and some top management and union officials' hands must be on.
10. DON'T get two fingers in the stew. As soon as you get two opinions about a termination, your chances of ending up in court just doubled.
11. DON'T extend the work of a consulting teacher beyond three years. Good teachers need to teach. Besides, three years is close to the burnout stage.
12. DON'T assume university people know more about evaluation than you do. If they did, intern programs wouldn't be necessary.

SOURCE: Printed with permission from Dal Lawrence.

support for the importance of consensus building in the PAR process. That is, as long as the two fingers are on the same hand, working in concert with one another, we are unlikely to have a problem. It is when the two fingers are working in opposition—where data and opinions are available to support either position on an issue—that this suggestion is particularly appropriate.

Last, as university people, we almost felt compelled to comment on the final entry on the list. And as university people, we would modify it slightly. Some university people do know more about evaluation than educational practitioners do. Even these university people, however, do not know how best to act on this knowledge in various situations (including their own). In fact, one of the reasons

we grounded this book in current PAR programs was to reduce the gap that often exists between university people and practitioners. It is one thing to tell people what should be done in an ideal world; it is another matter completely to modify those suggestions to conform to the demands of the real world.

A Final Comment

When all is said and done, where do we stand on PAR? First, we believe that PAR programs have great potential. There are too few programs that bring together concerns for teacher professionalism, instructional quality, school improvement, and student learning. PAR programs do! Second, there is an unfortunate lack of data on the effectiveness of PAR programs in improving instructional quality and student learning. Thus we are unsure of whether the potential is being realized, even in those programs that have been in operation for some time. Third, if educators choose to or are required to design and implement PAR programs, they should design and implement the best programs they possibly can. It is to this end that this book was written.

Resource A:
Useful Web Sites

Web Site Address	*Program*
www.ceaohio.org/reform/Par/par.html	Columbus (Ohio)
www.aft.org/research/models/contracts/teacher/rochest/56.htm	Rochester (New York)
www.tft250.org/the_toledo_plan.htm	Toledo (Ohio)

Resource B:
Sample Rubrics

DOMAIN III: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

(assessed by self reflection, observation, and/or conference)

ELEMENT 2: Effectively Manages Instructional Time

- Establishes routines for administrative organizational tasks
- Manages and/or coordinates support staff, when appropriate
- Begins and ends lessons on time
- Provides orderly transitions in a minimal amount of time
- Manages instructional groups so that students are productively engaged at all times

Does Not Meet Standards		*Meets Standards*	
Instructional time is lost performing organizational duties	Routines or systems for performing organizational duties function moderately well	Routines or systems for performing organizational duties are efficient	Students assume responsibility for efficiently performing some organizational duties
Support staff has no clearly defined duties or are not purposefully involved	Support staff is productively engaged during portions of the class but require frequent supervision	Support staff is productively and independently engaged during class	Support staff makes a substantive contribution to the class

(continued)

Does Not Meet Standards		*Meets Standards*	
Lessons do not begin and/or end in a timely manner	Lessons generally begin and end in a timely manner	All lessons begin and end in a timely manner	Students are consistently engaged throughout all lessons
Much time is lost during transitions	Transitions are generally efficient	Transitions occur smoothly with little loss of instructional time	Transitions occur smoothly with students assuming some of the responsibility for efficient operation
Students/groups not working with the teacher are not productively engaged	Students/groups may be occasionally off task when teacher is involved with others	Tasks for individuals and groups are organized and managed so most students are engaged at all times	Students/groups working independently are productively engaged at all times

SOURCE: PUSD (1999). Printed with permission.

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Resource C: Sample Job Description and Application Form for Consulting Teachers

JOB DESCRIPTION: CONSULTING TEACHER

RESPONSIBILITIES:

1. Consulting Teachers provide assistance and support to tenured teachers who are experiencing severe difficulties in the classroom. The goal is to improve their teaching performance.

2. Consulting Teachers direct the implementation of plans for assistance for teachers who choose to participate in the Peer Assistance and Review Program (PAR). Consulting Teachers develop specific performance goals with each teacher, offer support, and monitor the progress of the teacher. By invitation of the Consulting Teacher, other school personnel may assist in the PAR program.

3. Consulting Teachers participate in other professional development activities, as indicated by the PAR plan.

QUALIFICATIONS:

- Status as a permanent teacher
- At least 7 years of successful classroom teaching experience and/or direct student contact, 5 of which must be with the District
- Proven ability to work successfully with students who have the greatest needs
- Outstanding classroom (or direct student contact) teaching ability (demonstrated)
- Effective written and oral communication skills
- Evidence of professional growth
- Extensive knowledge of a variety of classroom management, interpersonal interaction, and instruction techniques
- Proven ability to work cooperatively and effectively with other professional staff members

ADDITIONAL CRITERIA:

- Commitment to improving student outcomes
- Knowledge and use of community support systems
- Involvement in professional activities
- Effective parent communication skills
- Evidence of leadership skills

REPORTING, SUPERVISION, AND EVALUATION:

Supervision and evaluation of Consulting Teachers are directed and monitored by the Panel. A performance evaluation process for each Consulting Teacher position is approved by the Panel. Evaluation of Consulting Teachers may involve peers and administrators within the organizational unit to which the Consulting Teacher is assigned.

COMPENSATION:

Compensation for Consulting Teachers will include per diem release for performance of duties that must occur during the normal teaching day and 5% salary differential per year, for as long as the intervention assignment continues. Partial years of active service will be prorated.

THOSE SELECTED WILL

- Continue in their current positions until appointed to an active assignment; selection as a Consulting Teacher is not a guarantee of active assignment.
- Agree to a schedule containing both teaching responsibilities (or direct student contact) and additional professional responsibilities
- Agree to accept assignments that meet the District's instructional needs
- Remain in the same tenure area, continue to accrue seniority, and have the right to return to previous teaching positions at the opening of the succeeding school year or as soon as practicable

TRAINING:

Consulting Teachers receive training in peer coaching and effective teaching techniques, such as confrontational counseling. Consulting Teachers must complete training before they are assigned intervention cases. Consulting Teachers must be available for a week in August for training (dates to be determined).

APPLICATION REQUIREMENTS:

Qualified applicants are required to complete the *APPLICATION FOR CONSULTING TEACHER* and other materials are requested. A complete application package includes the application form, all reference materials, and, if possible, a resume.

Applications are accepted throughout the year. Applications should be submitted before April 15.

APPLICATION FOR CONSULTING TEACHER

Name: _____ Social Security Number: _____

Home Address: _____

Home Telephone: _____

Summer Address (if different): _____

Current Certification Area: _____

Other Permanent Certification: _____

The Selection Committee may request to review your annual performance evaluations.
Consent given _____. Consent not given _____.

Teaching Experience: List most recent teaching assignment first. Minimum requirement is 7 years with at least 5 full years in the District as of the date the Consulting Teacher position begins. A resume of up to two pages may be submitted with this application.

Inclusive Dates		School	Subject Area or Grade Level	Number of Years	Name of Principal or Supervisor
From Mo./Yr.	To Mo./Yr.				

REFERENCES

A minimum of five confidential references are required to complete this application.

Please include teachers within the same discipline or from the same teaching level (primary, intermediate, same cluster, etc.) who are knowledgeable about your professional performance. List the name and phone numbers of individuals who will be completing confidential reference forms:

Position	*Name*	*Telephone Number*
Principal or Direct Supervisor		
Teachers Association Representative		
Teacher		
Teacher		
Teacher		
Other		
Other		

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APPLICANT'S STATEMENT

State why you desire the position of Consulting Teacher and how your experience and training have qualified you. Include how professional development has expanded your knowledge and skills in ways that support your interest in guiding beginning teachers. If possible, refer to evidence that you have incorporated the Professional Standards and Expectations for teachers in your work with students, colleagues, and parents.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

All applications and references are confidential. Applications will be reviewed by the Panel, where decisions are made on who will be interviewed. The Panel may request to observe your teaching performance. Applications must be received on or before the close of business on the date specified in the job description.

Resource D: Sample Request for Assistance and Recommendation for Intervention

PEER INTERVENTION PROGRAM
260 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10010

REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE
THROUGH THE PEER INTERVENTION PROGRAM

Name:_____ File #: _____

Home Address: _____ S. S. #:_____

Phone # (Home): _____ Phone # (School): _____

Number of Years Teaching: _____

Current License Area: _____ Tenured: Yes ☐ No ☐

Current School/Work Address: _____

Name and Title of Current Supervisor: _____

Please feel free to attach an additional sheet with your answers to the following questions.

IF YOU WERE RATED UNSATISFACTORY LAST JUNE, OR IN PREVIOUS YEARS, PLEASE SPECIFY THE DATE(S) AND SCHOOL(S)/SITE(S). (THIS REFERS TO THE ANNUAL RATING, NOT SPECIFIC OBSERVATION/LETTERS.)

WHY DO YOU FEEL YOUR CLASSROOM COMPETENCE WOULD BENEFIT FROM PEER INTERVENTION? IS YOUR DECISION BASED ON YOUR HAVING RECEIVED AN UNSATISFACTORY RATING OR FORMAL WARNING? IF SO, WHAT REASONS WERE GIVEN FOR THIS RATING OR WARNING? PLEASE EXPLAIN.

_____ _____

Signature Date

THIS APPLICATION MUST BE RETURNED TO:
[Person's name, title, and address]

SOURCE: NYC (1995). Printed with permission.

PEER ASSISTANCE AND REVIEW PROGRAM
RECOMMENDATION FOR INTERVENTION

The principal and the Principal's Advisory Council recommend the following teacher for participation in the Peer Assistance and Review Program's Intervention segment:

Name of Teacher: _____
(please print)

Assigned Consulting Teacher: _____

_____ _____
Teacher Association or Union Representative Date

_____ _____
Building Principal's Signature Date

Send complete form to:
PAR PANEL CHAIRPERSON
[Person's name, title, and address]

SOURCE: Adapted from Columbus Public Schools Peer Assistance and Review Program.

Resource E:
Sample NBPTS Standards

The requirements for certification as a Middle Childhood/ Generalist by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards are organized into the following 11 standards. The standards have been sequenced as they have to facilitate understanding, not to assign priorities. They are each important facets of the art and science of teaching, which often occur concurrently given the seamless quality of highly accomplished practice.

I. Knowledge of Students

Accomplished teachers draw on their knowledge of child development and their relationships with students to understand their students' abilities, interests, aspirations and values.

II. Knowledge of Content and Curriculum

Accomplished teachers draw on their knowledge of subject matter and curriculum to make sound decisions about what is important for students to learn within and across the subject areas that comprise the middle childhood curriculum.

III. Learning Environment

Accomplished teachers establish a caring, inclusive, stimulating and safe school community where students can take intellectual

risks, practice democracy, and work both collaboratively and independently.

IV. Respect for Diversity

Accomplished teachers help students learn to respect individual and group differences.

V. Instructional Resources

Accomplished teachers create, assess, select and adapt a rich and varied collection of materials and draw on other resources such as staff, community members and students to support learning.

VI. Meaningful Applications of Knowledge

Accomplished teachers engage students in learning within and across the disciplines, and help students understand how the subjects they study can be used to explore important issues in their lives and the world around them.

VII. Multiple Paths to Knowledge

Accomplished teachers provide students with multiple paths needed to learn the central concepts in each school subject, explore important themes and topics that cut across subject areas, and build knowledge and understanding.

VIII. Assessment

Accomplished teachers understand the strengths and weaknesses of different assessment methods, base their instruction on ongoing assessment, and encourage students to monitor their own learning.

IX. Family Involvement

Accomplished teachers work to create positive relationships with families as they participate in the education of their children.

X. Reflection

Accomplished teachers regularly analyze, evaluate and strengthen the effectiveness and quality of their practice.

XI. Contributions to the Profession

Accomplished teachers work with colleagues to improve schools and to advance knowledge and practice in their field.

SOURCE: Adapted from NBPTS (2000).

Resource F: Sample Educational Policy Trust Agreement

AGREEMENT

This Agreement is entered into between the POWAY FEDERATION OF TEACHERS ("PFT") and the POWAY UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT ("DISTRICT").

RECITALS

1. The parties hereto desire to establish a system, the purpose of which is to assist probationary teachers employed by the DISTRICT in the development of proficiency in performance of their duties.

2. The DISTRICT and PFT have established a program (hereinafter "Professional Assistance Program"), on a trial basis, in which the DISTRICT will employ teacher/consultants whose primary responsibility is to evaluate first year probationary teachers by observing probationary teachers in the performance of their teaching duties, preparing written reports of such observations, and providing guidance and assisting probationary teachers in the performance of their duties and making recommendations for continuing as a District employee. Determination of the qualification for and specific job duties of the teacher/consultant position and the specific guidelines and procedures of the Professional Assistance Program shall be subject to mutual agreement between the DISTRICT and PFT.

3. Recognizing the trial nature of the Professional Assistance Program, the DISTRICT and PFT agree to continue the Professional Assistance Program by mutual consent only, with each party having the right at any time, to terminate the Program by giving written notice to the other. Should the Professional Assistance Program terminate for any reason, neither the DISTRICT nor PFT may assert any aspect of the creation or operation of the Program as a past practice having any impact whatsoever on the parties' duty to bargain in good faith over matters relating to the Program.

4. The parties agree that individuals employed by the DISTRICT in the teacher/consultant position shall continue to be part of the bargaining unit of which PFT has been certified as the exclusive representative and neither party will assert before any federal, state or local administrative agency, arbitrator, or court of law, that individuals employed as teacher/consultants are outside of the bargaining unit of which PFT is certified as the exclusive representative based upon such employment status.

NOW THEREFORE, it is agreed as follows:

1. *Recitals.* The foregoing Recitals are incorporated herein by reference as if set forth in full.

2. *Entire Agreement.* It is understood and agreed that this Agreement contains the entire agreement between the parties and that the terms of the Agreement are contractual and not mere recital.

3. *Authority.* The persons so signing this Agreement hereby warrant they have authority to execute this instrument and have, prior to signing, fully read and understood this Agreement.

Dated: _____ POWAY UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

By: _____

By: _____

Dated: _____ POWAY FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

By: _____
President

SOURCE: PUSD (1999). Printed with permission.

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